

THE DEVELOPMENT AND USE OF TRANSLATION COMPETENCE BY NOVICE AND
EXPERIENCED PROFESSIONAL TRANSLATORS: IMPLICATIONS FOR TRANSLATION
PEDAGOGY

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Abstract

A case study has been carried out to explore translation as a process and the development and application of translation competence as the central skill in professional translation activity. As a review of the literature suggests, the analyzed empirical research on the translation process itself does not offer a definite answer on the link between translation competence and its significance for training professional translators. Understanding translator actions can shed more light on decision-making in the translation process and the interaction between internal and external support. Consequently, it can help build a competence-based curriculum, as a systematic approach to translator training. The research questions addressed by this study investigate the subcompetences that professional translators use when translating, the ways in which these subcompetences differ in novice and experienced translators and translators' perceptions about the use of subcompetences during the translation task. To investigate the research questions, this study draws on theories supporting an integrated concept of translation (considered as a textual, communicative, and cognitive activity), competency-based language theories and socio-constructivist theories. Twelve professional translators from two language combinations (English-Spanish/Spanish-English) participated in this case study by translating a short text, completing a pre- and post-translation questionnaire, and participating in an individual interview. Findings from this study may offer empirical evidence on the use of translation competence by professional translators at different stages in their career. Findings may also advance translation competence theories and competence-based curriculum design for translator training.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Translation is a complex activity that involves a number of subcompetences extending far beyond the ability to transfer a message from one language into another. Translation is a procedural or operative knowledge, a “know how” that presupposes mastering the translation process and solving translation problems, which is mainly acquired with practice (Albir, 2001). It is important to mention that with the advent of technology, the professional translator needs translation subcompetences not only to master the translation process itself but also to be able to use the available translation tools that facilitate the task, for example, the use of translation memories. Since the 1990s, research in translation competence within translation studies has been an increasingly popular discussion topic among researchers (Gambier & Doorslaer, 2010). Many definitions of translation competence have been offered; however, it has proven to be difficult to identify or quantify. Efforts in defining translation competence have been helpful for the development of a pedagogy of translation that revolves around the notion of translation competence in the training¹ of aspiring translators at the university level. In order to build a model for a pedagogy of translation that favours the development of translation competence, there is a need for research evidence which can help to better understand translation processes. This, in turn, can lead to a systematic approach to the training of translators, emphasizing a competence-based curriculum. Since translation pedagogy is in itself an incipient discipline within translation studies, research into teaching methodologies, didactics, and competence-based curriculum development in the training of translators is still fairly recent (Delisle 1980, 2005; Kiraly, 1995; Albir, 2007; Kelly, 2008; Way, 2008; PACTE Group, 2008).

¹ The term “training” will be used when referring to any university education program for professional translators.

In this paper, an exploration of the relevant literature in search for a definition of translation competence will be offered. Then, research studies related to translation as a process and to the development and application of translation competence as the central skill in professional translation activity will be analyzed. Following that, the methodology and findings of this research study will be reviewed. Finally, the contributions that this study may potentially make to the advancement of translation pedagogy will be discussed.

1.1 Second language proficiency and translation competence

Research on translation competence has been greatly influenced by second language learning theories based on the notion of language proficiency as communicative competence. Bilingual individuals or advanced second language learners are often considered “incipient translators” for their ability to transcode (Kiraly, 1995). Since second language proficiency does not necessarily imply the ability to translate competently, it is essential to distinguish between translation competence and second language proficiency.

Second language proficiency has been defined and redefined by many theorists concerned with dynamics of first and second language acquisition. Since the early 1960s scholars have been researching issues related to second language proficiency by applying this construct to the intricate definitions of language itself. Davies (2002) provides a number of definitions of language proficiency that have been attempted by several researchers, most of which include the terms *competence*, *knowledge* and *performance*. Davies defines language proficiency as “a general type of knowledge or of competence in the use of a language (...)”, “ability to do something specific in the language (...)”, and “performance as measured by a particular testing procedure (...)” (p. 173-174).

Chomsky, one of the first contemporary linguists concerned with the concept of language proficiency in the first language (L1), developed a theoretical framework that was mainly based on the distinction between the terms *competence* and *performance*. On the one hand, Chomsky (1965) posited that *competence* is related to the knowledge of the linguistic system or grammar that an “ideal native speaker of a given language has internalized”. This approach was based on Chomsky’s theory of universal grammar by which he argued that human beings possess an innate ability to access an unconscious knowledge of grammar (Davies, 2002). On the other hand, he defined the term *performance* as the psychological factors that play a role in the perception and production of speech. Chomsky’s theory of language proficiency implied that beneath the concrete behaviour of the language speaker there exists, a priori, an abstract rule system or knowledge of the language. Accordingly, a fluent speaker knows the language by using the norms that govern his/her linguistic ability without any detailed consciousness of the grammatical system lying underneath. Consequently, this underlying knowledge of the language can be considered the speaker’s *linguistic competence* (Stern et al., 1992). Even though Chomsky did not specifically study the functionality of second language acquisition, his theory of language has informed many second language researchers. The main issue for many of these researchers has revolved around determining if second language learners are also able to apply the principles of universal grammar. However, it seems relevant to point out that Chomsky’s theory of universal grammar has been contested. Lakoff and Johnson (1999) argue that Chomsky viewed language through Cartesian philosophy, by which linguistic ability defines all aspects of human nature and universal grammar defines language. They challenge Chomsky’s perspective of syntax as “autonomous and causally self-sufficient” (p. 473) and they posit that the fact that it cannot accept any outside input obstructs the way syntax is incorporated by the brain. They go on to say that language is not entirely syntax and that there are other factors that help shape up a language,

such as semantic and phonological elements that adopt syntactically created structures and carry out other operations on them. Lakoff and Johnson (1999) identify several problems with Chomsky's Cartesian view on Linguistics, such as the fact that syntax is not independent of meaning. Syntax is indeed used to express meaning in the same way that communication cannot be separated from syntax as it is used in communicative strategies. They state that Chomsky's linguistic theory is inconsistent with empirical research on mind and language related to more recent and modern cognitive science.

During the early 1970s, several authors started questioning Chomsky's theory of L1 language proficiency. Among them, Campbell and Wales (1970), Hymes (1972), and Halliday (1973) proposed a broader definition of competence. They argued that a theory of language proficiency could not exclusively involve grammatical competence: sociolinguistic or contextual competence also had a great impact on the construct of language proficiency. Further to the distinctions and the contributions made by Halliday and Hymes, by the early 1980s the discussion about communicative competence, as a central constituent of language proficiency theory, took a more pedagogical approach. A seminal paper by Canale and Swain (1980) and the subsequent revision by Canale (1983) established a theoretical framework based on four dimensions of communicative competence that tried to interconnect Chomsky's ideas with Hymes and Halliday's model of communicative competence by adding a new focus to the whole approach. The authors distinguished between grammatical, sociolinguistic, strategic, and discourse competence.

According to Canale and Swain (1980) *grammatical* competence is based on the verbal and non-verbal mastery of the language code. This competence is related to the knowledge and

skill needed to understand and express the literal meaning of utterances. It is also concerned with what Hymes (1972) referred to as *formal possibility*: grammatical and lexical capacity. Canale (1983) did not characterize this competence with a specific theory of grammar and it was not clear, at the time, in what ways this theory would be relevant for second language pedagogy. According to Canale and Swain (1980) *sociolinguistic* competence is concerned with the social context in which communication is carried out and the purpose and the relationships behind the interaction, on the part of the speakers. At first, this competence included the use and rules of discourse as well, but in 1983, Canale revisited this theory and added a fourth competence that became known as *discourse*. This competence refers to the interpretation of the individual interconnected elements and the role that meaning plays with respect to the discourse or text (Canale, 1983). *Strategic* competence involves verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that speakers use to initiate, maintain, redirect and close communication as a result of performance variables or insufficient competence (Canale & Swain, 1980).

Canale and Swain's 1980 model, later adapted by Canale (1983) served as the basis for new research in communicative competence. Bachman (1990) proposed a model called "communicative language ability" that further developed Canale and Swain's model by clearly distinguishing between *knowledge* as language competence and *skill* as the ability of applying this competence. He also offered a characterization of the processes by which the various components interact with each other and with the language context. The components in Bachman's model (1990) are: language competence (knowledge), strategic competence (implementation), and psychophysiological mechanisms (execution). Bachman's model was further modified and extended by Bachman and Palmer (1996) to include affective factors in language use, changing knowledge structures into "topical knowledge", which refers to real

world knowledge and includes cultural knowledge, and re-defining strategic competence as a set of “metacognitive strategies” (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007).

The models of communicative competence developed by Canale and Swain (1980), Canale (1983) and Bachman (1990) will serve as frameworks for this research study on translation competence because they focus on different competences related to communicative competence in second language acquisition and mastery, such as grammatical, sociolinguistic, strategic, and discourse competence.

1.2 Defining translation competence

The basic principles of translation are communication and linguistic adaptation. In order to communicate the same intention in the same communicative situation, the translator mediates between different linguistic means to attain an identity of communicative intentions (Albir, 2001). When it comes to translation and the analysis of translation processes, the knowledge and competences involved in it vary in their definition among different researchers. Translation processes have been studied and defined from a cognitive as well as a non-cognitive point of view. The latter views translation as a communicative act and therefore analyses the different actors that intervene in the process, such as the author, the original document, the translator or the different operations that take place in it: the analysis and the synthesis. Some non-cognitivist theories describe the translation process from different points of view such as linguistic, semiotic, hermeneutical, and communicative. These theories do not take into account the mental processes that propel the translator’s activity. Nida (1964) who describes the translation process through information theory, refers to the message as “codification and recodification,” establishing three chronological phases in the translation process: grammatical and connotative

analysis, transference (modified lexicon and structures), and stylistic restructuring. Along similar lines, Benard and Horguelin (1977) have divided the translation process into two stages, “decodification” or comprehension before translation and “codification” or translation to facilitate comprehension. After having acquired translation experience, the translator then functions in four stages: 1) reading 2) analysis-comprehension 3) transference and restructuring 4) verification (which can be shared with a reviser)². Other authors, such as Larson (1984) have focused on similar stages in translation. This author identifies the following phases in translation: 1) exegesis or preparation 2) transfer and initial draft 3) evaluation 4) revised draft 5) consultation 6) final draft. Another author who has greatly contributed to the analysis of the translation process is Nord (1991, 2005) who considers the translation process as circular, following the recursive phases of text analysis, transference, synthesis, and structuring. Delisle (1993) has divided the translation process in three stages in an effort to describe the translator’s *modus operandi*. These stages are: before, during, and after the translation operation, which are then subdivided into reading, comprehension, transference, and verification.

According to Albir (2001), towards the end of the 1960s, the approach to the analysis of the translation process shifted to a cognitivist or psycholinguistic one. Researchers were interested in the study of the mental processes that generate the information transfer in translators and interpreters, which differs among them and from the rest of the speakers and writers. One of these researchers, Bell (1991), brings a perspective to the analysis of the translation process that combines translation theory with linguistics, cognitive science, and artificial intelligence. He addresses not only the transference process but also the role that semantics, communication, and textual and discourse analysis play in the translation process. He also stresses the impact that

² Translated from French

memory has on information processing, storage, and retrieval. Among the most important models related to this approach are Seleskovitch and Lederer (1993), who have focused on the interpretation activity as the basis for process analysis. They argue that interpretation is an activity in which both linguistic and extralinguistic elements interact in the re-enactment of the original message. It is through the analysis of the interpreter's cognitive processes that it is possible to understand how translation happens, contrary to the description or the comparison of the languages involved.

Finally, Kiraly (1995) combines a sociological and psycholinguistic approach to the study of the translation process with the purpose of linking translation theory, second language teaching, and translation pedagogy. He argues that the development of a model for translation process analysis based on empirical description of translation processes can be used as a reference for teaching and learning translation.

Communicative and linguistic competences, as previously discussed, have been extensively studied over the last four decades. Defining or quantifying translation processes and competences has proven to be a difficult research topic in translation studies due to its complex cognitive nature. The term *translation competence* started to be widely used by researchers in the mid 1980s. However, many authors refer to the lack of agreement among researchers and the need for more descriptive empirical evidence of translation competence in the literature (Delisle & Lee-Jahnke, 1998; Gile, 2005; Albir, 2001; Kiraly, 1995; Way, 2008).

It is often assumed that translation ability entails a linguistic competence directly associated with bilingualism, and that; therefore, bilingual aptitude leads to translation ability

(Gile, 2005). However, there seems to be a consensus among researchers that, when it comes to defining translation competence, language ability, although essential, is not in itself sufficient (Schäffner & Adab, 2000). As a result, scholars in the field have started researching and defining the notion of “translation competence”. Although it has also been called *transfer competence* (Nord, 1991), *translator competence* (Kiraly, 1995), and *translator performance* (Wilss 1996) *translation competence* seems to be the preferred term in the last wave of research in this field. This term is considered to be a more accurate description of the skills and knowledge that translators need to be able to translate, based on the terminology used in the field of applied linguistics and second language education research (Orozco & Albir, 2002).

Among some of the researchers who have investigated translation competence, Bell (1991) has defined it as the combination of knowledge and skills common to all communicators (except that for the translator it *must* be in the two languages) plus the decoding skills of reading and the encoding skills of writing. According to Bell, knowledge areas specifically for translators include:

1. Source language knowledge: syntactic, lexicon, and semantics systems plus text-creating systems
2. Target language knowledge: same as for the source language;
3. Text-type knowledge
4. Subject area knowledge
5. Contrastive knowledge of each of the above³

³ Contrastive knowledge: The knowledge and study of two languages in contrast (Baker, 2001).

Bell argues that a deductive approach to translator competence is based on the competence of the “ideal bilingual”, influenced by Chomsky’s ideas of the “ideal speaker-hearer”. By this Bell implies that translator competence can be understood and defined by analyzing internal thinking processes and knowledge which allow translators to perform their task. Bell also proposes an inductive approach to translator competence that focuses on the final product: the translation. This approach is concerned with finding features that imply the existence of particular elements and systematic operations that occur in the process. Therefore, translation competence is understood as an expert system whose analysis can allow for not only making translation processes more efficient but also for re-evaluating the assumptions behind translator training.

Wilss (1996) has first defined translation competence as a “supercompetence” because of the capacity to combine two monolingual knowledge areas into an effective intertextual and interlingual transfer. He has described translation as a mental process that mediates between the translator and the source text and eventually between the translator, the source text author and the target text audience. In this sense, translation is a process that fully integrates text, knowledge, context, and translator attitude, thus not provoking a simple reaction to “incoming textual stimuli” (p. 123). According to Wilss, who refers to translation competence as “translator performance”, it can be understood as an information processing act that combines lexical, phraseological, syntactic, and pragmatic processing of the textual input with lexical, phraseological, syntactic, and pragmatic transfer of the source text into the target text in order to achieve functional equivalence. Furthermore, the concept of translator performance presupposes methodological notions on how source language text units are cognitively processed and transferred in the course of cognitive stages “leading from pre-translational analysis to post-

translational evaluation procedures” (p. 126). In other words, Wilss understands translation competence as a combination of “innate abilities” (p. 127) and individual learning processes that a translator develops through training in the mediation between input and output.

Neubert (2000) has defined translation competence as the ability that enables translators to cope with the different cognitive tasks involved in the translation activity. According to Neubert, translation competence is characterized by seven key factors: complexity, heterogeneity, approximation, open-endedness, creativity, situationality, and historicity. Certain factors such as complexity and heterogeneity distinguish translation practice from all other professions and as such must be developed in future translators. He goes on to argue that these factors, however, account for the “approximate” nature of translation competence, as translators cannot be fully competent in all fields that they have to work on, namely the subject matter of the source text. In that sense, translators are constantly challenged to be creative, an aspect of translation competence that Neubert describes as “derived” or “guided creativity” (p. 4), as it is always generated by the source text. He argues that the many cognitive operations that take place during the translation task prove that translation competence is much more than just linguistic ability.

Schäffner & Adab (2000) link translation competence to other concepts and qualities required for the translation task, namely, knowledge, skills, awareness, and expertise. They consider the term “competence” as a comprehensive concept for the overall performance ability that appears to be difficult to define. It includes different capacities aimed at performing specific tasks which function on the basis of declarative and operative knowledge. The capacity to use this knowledge and to apply it is related to “awareness,” also called “transfer competence”. The

authors go on to say that translation competence should be at the heart of any translation training program and that competence can be developed through it. However, this learning process can be difficult to quantify, leading researchers to investigate not only “how” but also “when” translation competence develops.

Kelly (2002) refers to translation competence as the combination of skills, knowledge, and attitudes that translators expertly use in the translation task. As Neubert (2000), she also distinguishes between translation competence and other expert activities by means of a combination of different factors and their interaction during the translation process. Translation competence comprises several subcompetences, such as communicative, textual, cultural, subject area, instrumental and professional, psycho-physiological or attitudinal, and interpersonal subcompetences, that complement each other and that are not necessarily dependent on each other. She argues that, for that matter, the absence of linguistic competence, for example, can be accounted for by another subcompetence better developed. She proposes a model that describes subcompetences interacting more frequently than others in the translation process and that suggests that individual translators develop differently along their professional activity.

As previously discussed, Gile (2005) argues that linguistic ability in a second language is not a defining or sufficient aspect of translation ability, especially not so for the translation of specialized source texts. He draws attention to four important aspects that translation competence entails:

1. Source language mastery is passive: a translator needs to be able to understand what the author has written in the source text, not to write in the source language.
2. Source language mastery is only written.

3. Reading comprehension varies according to the source text. There is no need to master the foreign language as native speakers do; however, having a basic knowledge of the language and complementing it with the use of a dictionary will not suffice either.
4. Knowing a language implies knowing the culture attached to that language. Certain terms and expressions, especially cultural ones, cannot be separated from historical and social facts or community related language that has textual implications in terms of usage and semantics.

Gile (2005) also suggests that being able to translate not only requires the translator to have a high reading comprehension ability in the source language, but also have an equal writing ability in the target language. He argues that translation should not be defined in terms of pure “knowledge” but of “know how”, since it is through “transfer” competence that the translator makes decisions regarding linguistic equivalence, ambiguous source text, and target text writing difficulties.

The PACTE Group (Process in the Acquisition of Translation Competence and Evaluation, 2008), a group led by Albir that has carried out extensive research on the notion of translation competence, has defined it as an underlying system of knowledge, skills, and attitudes that is needed in order to be able to translate. This group describes translation competence as follows:

1. expert knowledge that is not shared by all bilinguals;
2. mainly procedural knowledge;
3. divided into several interrelated subcompetences, and

4. highly significant strategic component

They argue that translation competence is made up of interrelated subcompetences and that its acquisition is a dynamic process that allows the translator to build new knowledge on the basis of the already existing one. An example of the aforementioned subcompetences is “bilingual subcompetence” but a discussion in full detail of all the subcompetences will be presented in section 1.3 of this dissertation. Therefore, a beginner stage in the translator training process may be considered as one in which the subcompetences have been acquired but do not necessarily interact with each other. Once these subcompetences have been developed and applied in a systematic manner, then it can be considered translation competence (PACTE, 2000).

The translation task, as previously discussed, encompasses several subcompetences that are bound to each other and that are necessary for the many stages in the translation process. The complexity of the translation task requires that professional translators use much more than linguistic ability, it requires an expertise that differentiates them from other language users. This expertise can be unevenly developed among translators but if any of the many subcompetences that make up this expertise is absent, then the translation task will not be able to be properly carried out (Neubert, 2000).

Overall, researchers agree on the subdivision of translation competence into several interrelated subcompetences, however classification varies from author to author. These can be analyzed either in isolation or in conjunction and they do not only include language competence. In fact, these parameters of translation competence and their complex interrelations are what distinguish translation from all other communication practices. Neubert (2000) divides

translation competence into: language competence, textual competence, subject competence, cultural competence, and transfer competence. According to this author, language, textual, subject, and cultural competences are shared with other language users but it is precisely transfer competence that integrates all the other competences in the translation process, making the translation task impossible otherwise. On the other hand, however, a translator that does not have a well rounded grasp of the other four competences cannot possibly make use of only transfer competence to achieve an idiomatic, grammatically correct, and culturally appropriate target text. Neubert (2000) also considers the interaction of the five subcompetences in two more ways: it is needed not only for translating any individual text but also it is specific to the kind of texts to be translated by any individual translator. This means that the right configuration of the five subcompetences can produce an adequate translation. He goes on to argue that the more we understand the complex distribution of knowledge and skills, the better we can analyze the nature of the translation process.

1.3 Translation subcompetences

Neubert (2000) defines language competence as a “sine qua non of translation” (page 7), stressing the importance of the first language knowledge and skill, often underestimated by the translator itself as well as instructors and clients alike. Language competence can be understood as the near-perfect knowledge of grammatical and lexical components of both the source and target language. This subcompetence implies not only the ability to have a well-rounded grasp of both languages, but also to be aware of the ongoing changes occurring in them. Language knowledge that can be acquired through dictionaries and other reference sources is not sufficient: translators need to be aware of special terminology, for example, that is concerned with a

specific thematic area, as well as syntactic and morphological conventions evolving in both languages.

With regard to textual competence, Neubert (2000) states that translation is “systemic” (p.8) because it conforms to textual norms pertaining to both the source and target languages. This, in turn, is determined by discourse proficiency, understood as the ability to specialize in different areas of knowledge in a language. Translators, must, as it is often assumed, be experts in all areas of knowledge that the source text touches upon, meaning that translators need to be able to manage and understand specialized subjects to which they may have been never exposed. They must be able to identify not only linguistic issues but also specialized textual content which can be enhanced by previous professional careers or personal interests.

Tied to textual competence, subject competence is perhaps the one competence that can never be exhaustive, as the specialization of text is always developing and increasing in quantity (Neubert, 2000). Even though subject knowledge is not active and available all the time, translators must know how to access it and retrieve it when needed. This type of knowledge does usually not compare to professional subject expertise but it needs to be broad enough to satisfy professional and technical standards. Even though translators can also resort to the help of a specialist, it is imperative that they know how to research the message to be delivered. This subcompetence is not necessarily restricted to technical subjects; it can pertain to any kind of domain like literary ones.

Cultural subcompetence, which is not only concerned with literary works but also with technical texts, demands a deep understanding on the part of the translator of how objective texts

are also bound to cultural conventions in terms of terminology. As there are vast differences between types of texts and different genres, translators need to be interculturally competent in order to be able to mediate between the source and target texts. They have to combine elements of both interacting cultures, together with their own personal knowledge about obvious and less evident differences between both cultures (Neubert, 2000).

Finally, transfer subcompetence, an essential ability that the translator needs to master during the translation task, dictates the tactics and strategies for converting the source text into the target text. Bakhtin (1986) argues that human activity cannot be separated from the use of language which is manifested in the form of individual specific “utterances” (oral and written) (p.60) by speakers in different aspects of human life. These “utterances” represent the distinct conditions and objectives of each aspect of human life, not only through the content relevant to that area but also through a specific language style which includes “a selection of lexical, phraseological, and grammatical resources of the language but above all through their compositional structure” (p. 60). All of these areas are inextricably related to the “whole of the utterance” (p.60) and are identically influenced by the distinct domain of communication. Therefore, whatever the goal of the translated text, mastering this subcompetence means that the translator is able to communicate the original message effectively and accurately in the target language, integrating all other subcompetences along the way. By being able to transfer the message effectively, the translator is acting as a mediator between the two texts and his/her cognitive achievement is “but a means to an end” (Neubert, 2000, p. 10). Any extra knowledge the translator might have about a specific subject matter does not make a difference for the readership as it can only read the translated text which is deemed to be a faithful rendering of the original text. Transfer subcompetence is, thus, an integral component of translation competence.

In translation, however, a target text cannot be understood as an “exact rendition” of the source text in a mathematical or logical way. An equivalent rendition of the source text is the result of the four subcompetences being processed by the fifth one, the transfer subcompetence. The more developed the subcompetences are, the more effective the transfer will be and the more accurate the translation of the source text will be overall. The actual transfer is the result of the translator’s own decisions about how to put the subcompetences into practice, that is the translator’s “unique cognitive set or ability of matching language, textual, subject, and cultural competences” (Neubert, 2000, p. 12).

Vienne (2000) argues that translation competence is often considered as a “three-level skill” (p. 91) as a result of models of translation that emphasize three translation phases (deverbalization, transfer, and reverbilization). He refers to Nord’s “looping model” (1991) as one that takes into consideration both the source text and the target text and all the different actors involved in the translation process such as the translator requester, the reviser, the target text user and the target text reader. He goes on to say that professional translators not always have information about the source text or the target text situation and they usually need to research this information. As a result, he states that the first basic element of translation competence is “the ability to analyse a variety of translation situations” (p.92). Vienne argues that many authors in the field of translation give more importance to the analysis of the translation situation that is more concerned with the source text than the target text. Since the translator needs to produce a target text, all the elements related to it, such as the target reader, the target context, and the purpose of the translation, have to be taken into account,

Kelly (2002) offers a different subdivision of translation competence based on conclusions drawn from her observations of professional translators on task and meta-analysis of other studies. Her model for translation competence includes:

1. Communicative and textual subcompetence: It entails passive and active forms of communication, as well as textual conventions of the source and target cultures
2. Cultural subcompetence: It includes not only encyclopaedic knowledge about the countries where the source and the target languages are spoken but also values, myths, perceptions, beliefs, behaviours and textual representations.
3. Subject area subcompetence: It is the basic knowledge about the different specialized domains with which the translator may work. This subcompetence enables the translator to understand the source text or the documentation resulting from research on the subject area.
4. Instrumental and professional subcompetence: It is the use of varied resources, terminology research and management, technological tools that enable the translator's task, basic business management knowledge, professional ethics and networking abilities.
5. Psycho-physiological or attitudinal subcompetence: It involves the translator's perception of his/her own translation abilities, such as self-confidence, memory, and attention span.
6. Interpersonal subcompetence: It implies the ability to professionally relate to other colleagues, revisers, terminologists as well as clients, experts in certain specialized domains, source text authors, and supervisors.
7. Strategic subcompetence: Also called "transfer subcompetence" by Neubert (2000), it comprises all procedures that apply to the organization, performance, problem identification and resolution, self-evaluation and revision of the translator's task.

Strategic subcompetence is central to the application of the other subcompetences in the performance of a specific translation task. Kelly (2002) argues that because this subcompetence is closely associated with the ability of decision making, she deems the term “strategic” and not “transfer” more appropriate to name this subcompetence. In fact, she explains that the interrelation among the different subcompetences and strategic subcompetence is what distinguishes the translation task from other professional activities that also involve problem identification and decision making. She states that not all subcompetences are necessarily involved in the translation task at once. Depending on the source text, a specialized translator might not need to use his/her instrumental subcompetence because a very developed subject area subcompetence might suffice. Kelly (2002) also points out that the description of translation competence should not be mistaken with that of performance on individual translation tasks. Her model includes certain elements that vary among individual translators as each one may develop different competence levels in different stages of their professional careers.

Finally, the PACTE Group (2003, 2008), founded in 1997 and formed with the purpose of investigating the acquisition of translation competence offers a comprehensive model of translation competence. This group is comprised of experienced translators and translator trainers who have carried out extensive research in the field. Their model of translation competence is based on unified criteria collected from a wide variety of sources and a broad review of the available literature. They divide translation competence into five subcompetences:

1. Bilingual subcompetence: It is mainly procedural knowledge required to communicate in two languages, which includes: pragmatic, sociolinguistic, textual, grammatical, and lexical knowledge.

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2. Extralinguistic subcompetence: It presupposes general and field specific declarative knowledge, including bicultural, encyclopaedic, and subject knowledge.
 3. Knowledge about translation subcompetence: It is mainly declarative knowledge about translation as a social science (translation processes, methods, and procedures) and as a profession (including elements such as job market, work ethics, and certification).
 4. Instrumental subcompetence: It is mostly procedural knowledge related to the use of research and terminology tools in documentation.
 5. Strategic subcompetence: It includes procedural knowledge that guarantees the efficiency of the translation task. This subcompetence interacts with and affects all other subcompetences, controlling the translation process.

After reviewing the different terminology and models offered in the literature, the model presented by the PACTE Group (2003, 2008) will be used to inform this study due to the extensive experience and research this group has to offer in terms of translation training, pedagogical criteria, and evaluation methodology. Their model of translation competence analyzes translation as a process and as a product and it also incorporates psycho-physiological components. These are different types of cognitive and attitudinal elements including memory, perception, attention; and intellectual curiosity and psycho-motor mechanisms. This model of translation competence was created to be applied in empirical-experimental research carried out on observable and measured translator behaviour with regard to translation processes. An example of this model being used in experimental research is a study carried out by PACTE (2011) in which they present results associated to one of the translation competence variables, namely the identification and solution of translation problems. This group has also developed a

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set of new instruments to offer reliable observations in an attempt to fill an identified gap in the literature related to empirical research on translation competence. The terminology created by the PACTE Group (2008) will be adopted when referring to translation subcompetences.

1.4 Defining “professional translator”

Kelly (2006) argues that translation as a discipline has been using the concept of translation competence to describe the “different skills, knowledge, attitudes and aptitudes which differentiate the expert professional from the non-expert” (p. 9). She goes on to say that the difference between an expert and a non-expert is considered to be “progressive cline” and not a “distinct frontier” (p. 9). By this assertion, she implies that having a degree with no experience does not guarantee that the graduate has suddenly become an expert translator but rather someone who has attained translation competence and can start practising the profession with some form of supervision.

Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) think of professional translators as capable of managing all the nuances of the foreign language as well as having an overall command of all the resources of their first language. Translators must be able to be familiar with grammar and vocabulary of both languages in order to understand how the components of a linguistic system transfer ideas expressed in another linguistic system. They conclude that a detailed examination of language can help develop a theory of translation based on “linguistic structures and the psychology of language users.” (p. 10). The authors also point out that translators cannot work mechanically as, with experience, they can develop reflexes. These help them differentiate between formal aspects of language signifiers in order to conceptually understand them and be able to provide a given solution to a translation problem.

Albir (2001) makes a distinction between *natural* translation and *professional* translation. She states that *natural* translation is the innate and rudimentary ability to mediate between two languages that any multilingual speaker may have. Professional translation requires the individual to have translation competence that differs from natural translation by being comprised of subcompetences, as previously discussed. There are different levels to the formation and consolidation of the translation process, from novice to experienced translator.

In terms of what a professional translator is, it seems valuable for the purposes of this dissertation to define it. The *Canadian Translators, Terminologists, and Interpreters Council* (n.d.), the national body that represents professional translators, interpreters and terminologists and that contributes to high quality inter-language and intercultural communication defines it as follows:

Translators are professional communicators who transpose a written text from one language into another and convey its content as faithfully as possible. They must have an excellent knowledge of the source language and a mastery of the target language. Translators generally translate from their second or third language into their first language. They must know how to locate and use the linguistic documents, resources and tools needed for their work. By virtue of their training, translators are also qualified to write original material, edit texts and produce creative adaptations. Translators are, by nature, intellectually curious, skilled at transferring ideas from one language to another, highly professional, and possess broad general knowledge. They must have good interpersonal skills and an adaptable nature, in addition to strong writing skills. There are several types of translation – administrative, legal, literary, promotional or commercial,

scientific, technical, etc. ("Canadian Translators, Terminologists, and Interpreters Council," n.d.).

1.5 Developing a pedagogy for translation

Efforts in defining translation competence have been helpful for developing a pedagogy of translation based on the acquisition of competences, which can be learnt and applied not only throughout a training program but also after graduating from it. One of the first researchers who have discussed pedagogical aspects of the training of translators is Delisle (1980). He argues that because of pedagogical and methodological reasons, the translation of pragmatic texts should be based on the cognitive process of the interlinguistic transference and not on the target text as a final product. For Delisle (1980) teaching translation is:

...faire comprendre le processus intellectuel par lequel un message donné est transposé dans une autre langue, en plaçant l'apprenti-traducteur au cœur de l'opération traduisante pour lui en faire saisir la dynamique.⁴ (p. 16)

He states that discourse analysis is a better approach to the teaching of translation than traditional linguistics. He argues that translating is not *comparing* but rather *retelling* the message in a text that has a communicative function.

Delisle (1980, 1998) is also one of the first researchers who has introduced teaching objectives to translator training. He brought about the idea of general and specific objectives

⁴ Translation from French: "...to facilitate the comprehension of the intellectual process by which a given message is transferred to another language, placing the trainee translator at the center of the translation operation to help him/her understand the dynamics."

from education and second language education theories, leading the way to research the importance of translation competence and its implications for translation pedagogy. He argues that, in order to be efficient, translation training must help develop an organized knowledge and translation competence through cognitive processes. Learning to translate, at the university level, means that the trainee must reflect on the text to be translated, deeply analyse its structure, and interpret its message by disassociating the languages involved through interlinguistic transfer strategies. In other words, the translator must maximize linguistic resources of the target language and have an excellent command of target language writing techniques. He states that, even if practice is at the center of translation competence development, establishing clearly delimited learning outcomes along with diversified and valuable teaching techniques can lead to a better structured training. Delisle (1981) also suggests that the task of the translator trainer does not involve offering solutions to translation problems but to explain the manner in which these solutions can be found and to guide the trainee translator in the retelling of the message in another language. He argues that a pedagogy of translation should be based on a functional theory, a theoretical explanation that facilitates understanding of several aspects of the translation activity and its teaching. This does not imply that translation courses have to be exclusively theoretical. Aubin (2003) defines theory in the context of translation training as based on a methodical and intellectual organized system of a hypothetical nature. Translation theory is concerned with language structure and function, language comparison, and the cognitive process of the translation task. In translation programs, pragmatic courses offer trainees the opportunity of having a direct exposure to the mechanics of translation. According to Delisle, in the Canadian context theoretical reflection serves the purpose of teaching.

Kiraly (1995) argues that there is limited empirical evidence that can help understand how translators in training acquire and use translation competence. He states that there is a pedagogical gap in translation training given a lack of clear objectives, curricular materials, and teaching methods. In his opinion, this gap is mainly the result of instruction that is not based on:

...a coherent set of pedagogical principles derived from knowledge about the aims of translation instruction, the nature of translation competence, and an understanding of the effects of classroom instruction on students' translating proficiency. (pp. 5-6).

Kiraly (1995) views this pedagogical gap as a representation of the lack of a systematic approach to the teaching of translation competence. He argues that translation courses are, for the most part, not based on consistent pedagogical goals pertaining to knowledge about translation instruction objectives, translation competence acquisition, and on the understanding of the impact of teaching on the students' proficiency. He goes on to say that there exists a misconception among translator trainees that translation "involves little more than the mechanical replacement of linguistic elements in a text with objectively identifiable equivalent linguistic elements from a second language..." (p. 6).

Kiraly's approach to translation training is based on an empirical description of translation behaviour, by which a descriptive translation theory produces a descriptive translation pedagogy. In light of the extensive research in the field of second language acquisition, Kiraly (1995) proposes a model for the training of future translators based on student-centered instruction and the communicative language teaching approach used in second language teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). He argues that the said approach has major implications for

translation training as translation is ultimately a professional activity, and as such, trainees should be provided with opportunities to participate actively in their own learning by using translation skills in actual translation situations. However, since translation is not completely based on linguistic skills, translation pedagogy should not exclusively mirror second language pedagogy. The difference between the communicative approach in second language teaching and in translation training is that it not only focuses on the development of grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence but it should also include additional translation subcompetences. Aside from the unique interlingual transfer competence, research skills, the ability to write in the native language, creative thinking, and the competences implied by the professional task of the translator are key for a model of translation pedagogy.

Valentine (1998, 2003) has investigated translator training in Canada. He argues that training entails teaching theoretical and pragmatic knowledge linked to professional practice by facilitating the acquisition of essential abilities and competences. After having examined translation training practices in ten universities across Canada, this researcher has offered a general model including competences holistically involved in the training of translators from a functionalist point of view. This author argues that the institutions that he has investigated offer translation programs that have been greatly influenced by their own historical evolution and he has thus retraced them from 1936 to 1999. He has classified his observations according to the competences that are taught to translators in training. He understands the notion of competence as a combination of “knowledge” and “know-how” or as a “system of conceptual and procedural knowledge”⁵. According to his observations, the model includes five competences: 1) pre-translation competence 2) main competence 3) pragmatic competence 4) theoretical and

⁵ Translated from French

pragmatic supplementary competence and 5) extradisciplinary competence. From these observations he has elaborated a series of questions related to pedagogical implications for the training of translators and limited to specific contexts and training practices.

Schäffner and Adab (2000) argue that translation competence is, for the most part, effectively developed at an academic institution and a translation program should have the ultimate goal of developing translation competence as opposed to simply “improving performance” (p. xi). They also believe that “basic transfer competence” should be taught concurrently with language and cultural competence. In any professional medium “performance” is considered on the basis of certain clearly defined goals and requirements which necessitate, in turn, the development of a specific type of competence. In the case of translation, the development of translation competence is essential at the training level in order to satisfy the requirements of the rapidly growing translation industry. As Neubert (2000) puts it:

The crucial question for translation studies, just as for translation practice, and for that matter, for translation teaching, is how these five competences interrelate efficiently, effectively, and adequately to form the admittedly graded levels of translator competence that will guarantee the achievement of the highly varied scale of tasks expected from translators in their extremely multifaceted work routines. (p. 6).

From a pedagogical point of view, Delisle (2005) argues that a methodology for the teaching of any discipline, and, in this case for translation, should be expected to answer two questions: What are the learning outcomes? How can they be achieved? He argues that it is very important that at the university level, translation trainers take these two questions to heart and

that learning outcomes be clearly established, along with teaching techniques that are pedagogically diversified and efficient. He believes that it is possible to generate a systematic approach to translation teaching and that the debate is still very much alive. Delisle has tried to offer a different take on the current debate over translation training because he argues that, after more than fifty years, translation is a discipline still in search of a method. Delisle believes that pedagogical techniques such as planning a course, establishing short and long term outcomes, choosing a methodology, and applying feedback strategies in class *can* and *should* be associated with translation as an academic and professional discipline. As he eloquently puts it: « Il est possible d'apprendre à enseigner. Il est possible d'enseigner la traduction. Il est possible d'apprendre à enseigner la traduction. » (p. 64).⁶

Albir (2007) proposes a pedagogical model for translation training called Competence Based Training (CBT). This model is built on the basis of new pedagogical constructs that can be applied at the international level and that meet the demands of the professional translator's job and its impact on the marketplace (Way, 2008). As previously discussed, Albir (2007) agrees with Delisle (2005) in that any pedagogical approach to the teaching of any discipline has to respond to the questions: what to teach (outcomes and content), how to teach it (methodology) and what for (assessment). She argues that translation, as any discipline in higher education has to deal with specific challenges such as adapting teaching strategies to the demands at the international level, academically, professionally, and socially. CBT introduces an integrated model for teaching, learning, and assessment that values formative assessment and combines other approaches such as cooperative learning, problem-based learning and task-based learning.

⁶ Translation from French: *It is possible to learn how to teach. It is possible to teach translation. It is possible to learn how to teach translation.*

It is built upon theories of cognitive constructivism and socio-constructivist learning and it is meant to offer a more meaningful learning experience for the trainee. The key principle behind CBT is integration, as in the integration of the components of each competence, of the several competences and of learning, teaching, and assessment. Albir views competence as the integration of different kinds of abilities and skills, and declarative knowledge. Therefore, CBT for translators is based upon the characteristics inherent to translation competence and how this competence is acquired; starting from the principle that translation competence is not declarative knowledge but operative or procedural knowledge or *know how*.

Way (2008) argues that current reforms in higher education in Europe are calling for universities to encourage the acquisition of competences that students can apply not only throughout their studies but also in their subsequent professional careers. It is not only the university as a whole that is responsible for carrying out this goal, but each individual discipline charged with the task of training future professionals with the specific competences needed by specific professions. Student-centered pedagogy approaches are being favoured and universities are expected to create links among training, society, and the professional market. She goes on to say that research on the different translation subcompetences is key to establishing specific goals in translation training programs and the development of all subcompetences is essential to better prepare students for their professional future.

1.6 Relevant research studies on translation competence

An analysis of research studies published in the last twenty years has revealed that researchers tend to investigate issues of translation competence by focusing on translation students during their studies, comparing translation students and professional translators, or

investigating behaviours of professional translators. The latter focus seems to be the least represented in the literature reviewed for this dissertation. For organizational purposes, reviews of these studies were categorized under two headings: “translation process” and “translation pedagogy”.

1.6.1 Translation process

With respect to studies in which the research participants were solely students, Seguinot (1988) starts from variables that define expertise or novice level in a certain subject-area. These have been previously studied in other areas such as second language acquisition and psycholinguistics. She assumes that translation is a skill and, therefore, it can be taught. She goes on to say that improving one’s skills in translation involves more than knowledge, it involves using more translation strategies. She also suggests that very skilled students may not use the same strategies as less skilled students or weaker ones and that there may be differences between students who translate to their first language and to a second language. Most importantly, if students improve during a course and they change their strategies, the newer strategies may be related to the increased competence. Over the course of six years, Seguinot (1988) investigated 93 Francophone students and 102 Anglophone students in a specialized translation course who were given a text to translate at the start of courses at the second, third or fourth year level and compared to a related translation given at the end of the course. The students were asked to leave any changes/corrections they may have done to the text, as well as rough copies and they were allowed to use dictionaries. She concluded that because of time constraints in translating the text, students learn fast how to avoid strategies that may take up unnecessary time. The best students used their drafts to “make a snapshot” of the target text. This study has demonstrated that students improve with instruction although not necessarily through preparatory exercises related

to the text, but rather by incorporating what has been learnt into their revision strategies of the draft translation.

Shreve, Schäffner, Danks, and Griffin (1993) also investigated translation students with respect to reading and translation as two of various types of language processing, like writing, listening, speaking, among others. They argue that some translators do not read the source text prior to translation. Reading the source text is believed to be a pre-requisite of translation as it is the first step towards gaining knowledge of the text. However, translators may change reading strategies depending on knowledge of subject area and build understanding while translating. This is still considered “reading” and it may involve different kinds of reading for translation. The authors’ hypothesis for the study implied that reading for comprehension and reading for translation might be related. If reading for comprehension is included in a translation task, quantitative measures of the reading process will determine the influential role of the translation task. They researched 33 student participants who were divided into 3 groups: 10 translators, 10 master’s and doctoral students of English, and 13 master’s and doctoral level graduate students in psychology. The first group was to read a text for translation, the second group had to read for paraphrasing, and the third group was to read for general comprehension. The goal of the study was to compare the three tasks. The authors concluded that even if the translator’s reading of a text may be, to some extent, more thorough and deliberate than that of a regular reader, it is not likely to be always the case. The great variability in reading strategies among translators showed that they have much in common with other types of readers, especially with the ones who were asked to paraphrase, where language conversion is required by the task.

Along the same lines, a study by Königs and Kaufmann (1996) conducted with three advanced language students who were not professional translators was intended to describe the act of translation as a mental process. The authors based the study on the hypothesis that the mental processes of the participants could resemble those of professional translators, not taking into account the quality of the final product. The researchers found that the mental processes that took place during the translation task were so diverse and so individually unique that they could not be described or represented by general models. In addition, they found that the lexical domain took over that of grammar during the mental activity and that the participants did not edit their own work or that they didn't make use of the resources that were available to them, especially dictionaries. They concluded that the use of resources should be systematically imposed on translation courses, even during exams. This study is especially relevant because it demonstrates translation courses should include a systematic training on the diverse strategies that translators use to solve translation problems, calling for a continuous self-reflection on mental processes. Finally, they argue that both translation and second language acquisition share common problems related to mental activity in language acquisition, such as the mental processes that take place during term retrieval, efficient dictionary use, and lexical activation in translation problem solving. The authors suggest that these problems should be researched jointly, as they seem to be closer than commonly assumed.

Another study of twelve German/French bilingual fourth-year students by Lee-Jahnke (2005) revealed that more extensive cerebral activation is needed for the less linguistically proficient participants in performing tasks, which means that in translation, mental representations should be encouraged prior to translating. Participants were asked to determine, by pressing a button, whether pairs of terms belonged to the same semantic category or not. The

study also confirmed that less proficient bilinguals tend to be inhibited in the preparatory task because of interferences. The researcher concluded that, for training purposes, students should be offered different approaches according to their personalities, motivation, interest, memory, and ability to integrate new knowledge and make appropriate use of it at the right time. On the contrary, the more proficient students made fewer mistakes because they rely more on their encyclopaedic knowledge and they have a higher analytical sense and are able to find unusual terms in the text more often. For this type of student, it is best to encourage their predictive judgement. This study shows that during translation training it is very important to encourage the development of different strategies that may help activate mental representations at the pre-translation stage. Similarly, a study by Krasny & Sadoski (2008) investigated how mental imagery and affect in English/French bilinguals can impact comprehension in a second language. Data was analyzed through dual coding theory (DCT) which presupposes that meaning is manifested in two separate but interconnected mental coding systems, language and non verbal language processing and representation. DCT argues that readers experience and encode visual language during the reading process and in bilinguals there are two verbal systems that work independently but interrelated, for example in the translation phase. In addition, images may vary according to the cultural experience of the reader.

Another set of studies have analyzed the contrast between translation students and professional translators. One study by Jääskeläinen (1993) has focused on investigating translation strategies and understanding and applying the results didactically in the teaching of translation, rather than only offering a description of the process of translation. There were twelve participants in this study divided into 3 groups: four first and fifth year students of translation, four professional translators with 10-15 years of experience and four educated

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laymen with high level of English but no previous experience in translation. The participants were asked to translate an English text into Finnish and to produce a verbal report based on think-aloud protocols while they were translating. This study was meant to provide empirical data on translation strategies, as well as their definition, directed towards the teaching of those strategies that result in high quality translations. The researcher started from the hypothesis that educated laymen would produce more novice behaviour than first-year students, while professional translators were expected to show highly sophisticated versions of the fifth-year students' patterns of translational behaviour. The researcher found that a different definition of the concept "translation strategies" needs to be adopted that includes the notions of "goal-orientedness" and "subjective optimality". The author argues that translation strategies are a set of rules or principles used in order to reach the goals determined by a specific text in a specific situation in a most effective manner. The researcher draws a distinction between global and local strategies, the former refer to the general principles and *modus operandi* preferred by the translator and the latter to the specific activities related to decision making and problem solving. In terms of this definition, the author found that non-professional translators did not demonstrate use of global strategies whereas professional translators were more consistent in using them because they showed evidence of their own translation style. In the case of local strategies, in terms of successful and less successful translation processes, it is the distribution of the strategies, rather than their nature that seems to set the difference. As it is evident in the findings of this study, this means that successful translators seem to use certain types of strategies more often.

The second study, carried out by Alves (1996) was intended to cross-examine translation processes in sample translations through a psycholinguistic approach. There were 24 Portuguese

and Brazilians participants divided into sub-groups of professional translators, individuals with a very good command of German, students of German as a foreign language who had recently completed their degree and students of German as a foreign language who were in the last two terms of their studies. By investigating a group of professional translators and a group of foreign language students using think-aloud protocols, the author concluded that the translation process is a form of craft that requires the translator in training effort, patience, and determination. The translator is viewed as an apprentice who is dedicated to achieving a desired goal. The author argues that translators need to become more aware of how they translate and be able to explain it and share it. He makes reference to psycholinguistics as being concerned with the various mechanisms underlying linguistic competence and he concludes that research on translation should focus on the process without overlooking the product.

In his study, Lörscher (1996) looks at translation strategies and he defines them as “procedures which the subjects employ in order to solve translation problems”. Translation strategies start when the translator realizes that there is a problem with a certain text and they end with a solution to the problem or with the translator’s realization that there is no solution to the problem. Between the realization of the problem and solution or lack of, further verbal and/or mental activities can happen. These can be understood as being strategy steps or elements of translation strategies. They can be divided by categories for the strategic analysis of the translation process. The main goal of the study was to analyze translation performance from a psycholinguistic point of view in order to reconstruct translation strategies. These strategies work within the translation performance, operate in the translation process and cannot be directly and openly inspected. Aspects of the translation processes were compared in non-professional and professional translators who were asked to translate texts. The researcher found that the non-

professional translators take a form-oriented approach and the professional translators take a sense-oriented approach. The unit of translation is bigger for the professional translators, so in the case of professional translators errors were spotted while translating and for the non-professional before the translation. The non-professional had lexical transfer problems and the professionals had global formulating problems. The professionals checked style and text-type accuracy while the non-professionals checked solutions to their problems only. As a recommendation for translation teaching, the researcher suggests it is worth investigating how far research into translation processes can contribute to the teaching of translation. Since process-oriented research into translation is descriptive, we should not find out *how* they translate but how they *should* translate. It would be interesting and useful to compare what non-professional and professional translators consider to be a successful translation. Therefore, evaluation tools for translation strategies and ways of teaching successful strategies could be developed.

A study by Jääskeläinen (1996) argues that as many thought processes are automatized in the process of translation and cannot be verbalized, data needs to come from inexperienced translators to be able to know what is missing from the process of translation. However, many studies have rejected this hypothesis on the basis that “translation does not get easier” with experience. The hypotheses presented by this study is that not all translation processes are carried out faster and easier with professional experience and that the time invested in the process will likely be reflected in the product quality, regardless of professional experience. Twelve translators were asked to translate a text from a B language (or L2) to an A language (L1). The group was comprised of four FSL students, four professional translators, and four bilinguals with no translation experience. Findings from the study revealed that translation does not become easier with professional experience although the nature of the task and the

professional ability of the translator need to be taken into account. Novice translators did not analyze the source text in so much detail as professional translators. As a result, they translated fast and made more mistakes, depending on the difficulty of the task, unaware of their own weaknesses. As for professional translators, when they performed routine tasks, the process is quite mechanical as opposed to non-routine tasks which require a higher level of concentration and hence processing. An aspect of the findings that may benefit from further investigation is the impact of affective factors in completing the task of translation and its consequences on translation quality, as it may have significant didactic implications. Research on process-oriented translation can possibly shed some light on “not-so-perfect processes” which generate good quality translations.

A prominent study by the PACTE group (2005) was carried out to gain a better understanding about how translation competence is acquired and to investigate the translation process as well as the translation product. The researchers presented the hypothesis that “the translator’s degree of expertise influences the translation process and product” (p. 611). Participants were divided into two groups: three professional translators and three teachers of foreign languages all with at least six years of experience. Teachers are considered to share two of the subcompetences that translators exhibit, namely bilingual and extralinguistic subcompetences (not strategic, instrumental, and knowledge about translation subcompetences). For the translators in this study, 70% of their income came from translation activity. The researchers based their observations of the translators on task by means of “categories of actions” which were meant to follow the decision-making process adopted by the participants and which they had identified in a previous exploratory test. The findings of the study revealed that the degree of expertise influences the translation process and product. This study also shows that by

tracking a translator's actions researchers can learn more about how decision-making works in the translation process and the interaction between internal and external support in completing the translation task.

In a study that only focuses on one professional translator, Seguinot (1989) argues that in order to understand how a translator functions, we need to understand everything that a translator does when translating. However, to understand translation as an activity, all translation-specific processes need to be set apart. The cognitive processes that are inherent to translation may not be exclusive to it (reading comprehension, for example). She posits, therefore, that a model of translation process cannot be subject to translation-specific actions. There are certain limitations to the observation of a translation process or the use of translation strategies, in that they are not open for direct observation. They can be interpreted by looking for traces of mental activity and the lack of correspondence between language combinations. By observing the translation process itself through the actions of a professional translator on task, the researcher found that the translation was a product of both global and local strategies which interact with "critical awareness" (p. 39). This is related to information about the style and content of similar texts including spelling, punctuation, and grammar. The researcher noticed certain improvements of the source text reflected in the target text. She states that this may have been the result of a bad style of the original or, if the translator was competent, the translation process may have naturally led to a certain reworking of the source text. The researcher concluded that editing is a function of the translation process.

Since during the process of understanding a source text the translator draws on different kinds of knowledge, the logical connections will most likely be clearer to the translator than the

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meaning coming from the text. When a translator is expected to produce a certain amount of words a day and when the text bears repetition of style, format and lexicon, the translator will probably develop time-saving strategies. This would not be the case if the text focused on the effect on the target audience and the style. This study uncovered certain strategies connected to the successful completion of a translation by a professional translator, such as the tendency to continue translating for as long as possible and delay changes, a tendency to take advantage of physical interruptions while making changes and a technique for dealing with short-term memory limitations. The latter refers to understanding the meaning of the source text, translating the meaning that is active in short term memory, and returning to the expression level of the source text as memory retention weakens, which is contrary to the interpretation process.

In a similar study, Fraser (1996) argues that product-based approaches to translation theory mainly focus on description and comparison of linguistic structures, specifically semantic structures, not always considering other text features such as cultural content. Translation studies tend to focus less on the end product and more on the way in which it can be achieved. Both the “product-oriented model” and the “competence-based model” have received criticism because they do not provide an adequate framework for solving learning problems and because they do not make a difference between types of translation text and translation activity. The researcher posits that most of the research in recent years has focused on “actually occurring data” to try to sort out the translation process and they have mainly focused on students and language learners, instead of professional translators. She presents the findings of two studies, one of 12 community translators and another one of 21 free-lance translators. These studies were intended to investigate whether translator training should be product-driven or process-driven, based on theory or professional practice. The participants were asked to translate a text, which was

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different for each group, and then they had to reflect on the task by means of the “introspection” method (p. 88). Given the participants’ diverse responses, the researcher found that there is not a “correct way” to translate a text, but rather lots of correct ways that will depend on the type of text to be translated and the translator’s own perception of their role in the process and final product. This has an impact over translation training and the researcher offers new foci for research. Trainee translators need an explicit translation brief that includes an extensive description of the source language and target language register, readerships, and issues related to cultural equivalents. This will help trainee translators judge appropriateness in a particular context. There is a clear difference between studies focusing on trainee translators and professional translators in that the latter will offer more conclusions in terms of successful strategies for solving problems, a “working set of principles” for tackling a translation or a specific communicative task. The researcher concludes that trainees could benefit from these studies in that trainers should provide trainees with a “clearly perceived destination and confidence” in their capacity to apply several factors in order to find the most appropriate means of producing a quality product.

Focusing on advanced language learners, translation, and professional translators, a study by Campbell (1991) and a study by Lörscher (1992) investigated the translated text to draw conclusions on translation competence as revealed by the translated text itself and through the use of think aloud protocols. As translation competence is generally assessed by using tests, Campbell (1991) argues that there is not enough research on test characteristics particularly to the translation field. Moreover, a translation test can include items of differing difficulty and it can help assess translation competence and reveal translation processes, instead of just comparing the source text with the target text. In his study, Campbell (1991) analyzed test papers

of 38 candidates for a public examination in English-Arabic translation in order to determine the type of information that these tests can reveal in terms of translation competence. The results of the study revealed that there is a developmental dimension to translation competence and the researcher offers a model of translation competence that is divided into two parts: disposition and proficiency. Disposition is related to attitudes and psychological qualities of the translator. This element is independent of proficiency, so even somebody with a well developed proficiency may produce different translations from somebody with a different disposition. With regard to testing in translation, the author suggests that a more reliable testing could include a number of short passages, each one focussing on certain microlinguistic features. A diagnostic test, such as an entrance examination for a translation program should look both at the process and the developmental dimension. As for curriculum writing implications, a breakdown of translation competence components should be taken into account. This type of curriculum should include a syllabus designed to teach pragmatic aspects of translation competence such as decision making and extralinguistic issues. The author argues that the translation curriculum should be based on skill objectives and task objectives as well as on an effective diagnostic component.

Similarly, Lörcher's study (1992) was intended to analyze psycholinguistically translation performance in a number of translations in order to reconstruct translation strategies. These strategies operate within the translation process and cannot be directly assessed. They consist of basic, expanded, and complex structures. The author researched 45 translations carried out by advanced language learners. Lörcher (1992) found that participants generally used simple structures first and only when they were unsuccessful, they chose to apply more complex strategies. They showed a tendency to solve problems in translations into the first language by means of linguistically less complex strategies than when translating from the first language. He

also found that problems into the first language are less difficult to solve than problems from the first language, but for complex structures it is the opposite. Finally, he concluded that the differences between the strategies used when translating from the first language and those used when translating into the first language are based on degree as opposed to kind. They are caused by the different distributions of the types of problems and by the different degrees of difficulty of the respective problems.

1.6.2 Translation pedagogy

As evident in the literature reviewed for this dissertation, there are only a few studies that focus on translation pedagogy. This shows the lack of empirical research on translation competence that a number of researchers in the field have alluded to (Albir, 2001; Delisle & Lee-Jahnke, 1998; Gile, 2005; Kiraly, 1995; Way, 2008). The few studies that look into translation competence as an important element for building a model of translation pedagogy focus on self-awareness as a salient issue in translator training. In the following section, the relevant research related to translation pedagogy will be reviewed.

A study by Hall (1996) looked at text comprehension as one of the most important steps in the translation process. He investigated five Spanish-speaking translation students with varying levels of language proficiency in English and German. The participants were asked to translate a text and use think-aloud protocols during the task. A follow-up protocol about the task and a class discussion followed up on the participants' perceptions and feelings about text. The researcher argues that there are affective elements which have an impact over text comprehension processes. From the cognitive perspective, text comprehension itself can be studied as a description of mental processes. Text comprehension means understanding the intention, activating newly acquired knowledge, activating the affective feeling toward a specific

text. The researcher argues that developing self-awareness promotes and helps improvement of the translation competence acquisition. Procedures are not automatized and personal experience and cultural embedding are related to the possibility of finding solutions. The author posits that affective factors are central to text comprehension. This research study shows that traditional translation didactics focus on the surface level of the text, while psycholinguistic studies related to translation teaching emphasize understanding messages, drawing from linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge, which include pragmatic elements and, for that, inferencing and paraphrasing are key.

Along the lines of the preceding study, Zhong (2008) investigates the empirical use of self-directed learning (SDL) applied to translation training. SDL is a student-centered methodology that emphasises the learner and the learning process, allowing for the learner to play an active role in his/her own learning. According to Zhong (2008), traditionally, translation studies often looked at the end product, thus overlooking the process of translation. Translation pedagogy was concerned with teaching translation techniques and skills for producing an accurate translation. As translation theories have evolved, the focus is now on translators working with a variety of options, goals, resources, and abilities in order to produce an optimal outcome instead of a “correct” translation. A new focus on translation pedagogy is concerned with teaching future translators to be competent, by knowing themselves and working with their own strategies and skills to produce a quality product. The downside to this new methodology in translation pedagogy is that it can be less systematic than technique-centered teaching and it can make room for many variables. A group made up of four students from a university translation program was assigned a translation task followed by interviews by which participants discussed advantages and problems in the performance of the translation task. The participants identified

weaknesses and proceeded to design a learning plan with short, medium, and long term objectives as to how to overcome those weaknesses by the end of the course. These plans became learning contracts. After two weeks, the participants were assigned a second translation task which was also discussed and followed up on the learning plan. This cycle of translation task was repeated every two weeks until the end of the 14-week course. The results of this study revealed that SDL was successful in helping students accomplish individualized learning objectives by enabling them to use different strategies in their progress. It was successful when well-defined objectives were set and students were well aware of their own weaknesses and strengths and access to resources. Besides, the students' positive attitude and willingness to achieve goals as well as their dedication also influenced their learning and performance. Another reason for the success of SDL is the role that the instructor played by offering supervision and support to students. Interviews, post-translation discussions and learning logbooks, although time-consuming for the students also contributed to the success of the methodology. A downside to the implementation of this methodology is that it can be challenging and ineffective with students who lack motivation and individual initiative.

With respect to methodology in translation pedagogy, Echeverri (2005) argues that the literature does not provide answers about how to structure a university course in translation or how to deal with the different situations that can arise in the translation class. The methodology used is limited to imitating experienced professors, or manuals. There is a lack of community and innovation in "traductology", with no common practice in terms of teaching translation. The lecture format seems to be the most popular among instructors nowadays, but it is being criticized as "old fashioned". This study is divided into two case studies. For the first case study, based on Dewey's problem-based learning, by which students are faced with a problem that they

have never learnt how to solve, students formed groups and collaborately carried out a task without the instructor's intervention. The researcher observed the group discussions and took down notes. At the end of the two sessions, the students were asked to evaluate the method. This method was implemented on a documentation and terminology class over two sessions with a one week break. For the second case study, the researcher observed a translation methodology course based on the "lecture" class format. The researcher wanted to observe the interaction between the professor and the students. Echeverri stresses the importance of collaborative investigation as one of the more appropriate ways to create a sense of community and to produce empirical data as the basis for the training of translators. He also argues that translation classes constitute the best environment to observe, analyze, and produce these data. Results from the first case study revealed that participants were not very inclined to working collaboratively in the beginning.. Even though, in the end they liked working cooperatively, they concluded they needed more intervention and feedback on the part of the instructor. They felt they needed the reassurance of the instructor as they were used to the lecture class format. In the second case study, the observer pointed out that there was not enough interaction between students and instructor. The author concludes that it is important to see a class from another perspective (the students' as opposed to the instructor's). He also emphasizes the students' critical thinking related to their experience with a different pedagogical method. They were honest in their responses when given the chance to reflect on their own learning. This study shows that collaborative research can certainly offer a possibility to advance knowledge on the training of translators and it is important to form a community that is interested in researching what is going on in the class, to generate data that can support the training of translators and the teaching of translation. Also, observing classes from a different perspective and considering students'

reactions to a change in instruction methods can be very valuable in ensuring that the general or specific goals set for the class are being received by students effectively.

In a similar study, Lobo et al. (2007) argue that for decades, translator training has been based on the classic university model of the lecture format. Today, translator training is student-centered and the role of the trainer is to offer a series of factors to help students develop translation competence, which is mainly acquired through practice and it is processed automatically. Their study focuses on offering an alternative professional approach to translator training by imitating team work, as professional translators approach the task of translation in the marketplace context. By means of this approach, trainees integrated a variety of subjects in their curriculum and developed a comprehensive understanding of the productive tasks involved in the process of translation. This teaching approach is still being tested and the authors intend to further develop a website in order to offer more language combinations and translation specialties. They also intend to create instruments to measure and evaluate the approach through questionnaires and interviews before and after this study.

Coinciding with the studies carried out by Echeverri (2005) and Lobo et al. (2007), Varney (2009) argues that in translation, meaning has been viewed as “non-static” and “non-given”, through the lenses of an essentialist ideology. Even if there has been a shift towards the idea that meaning is created by readers and not imposed by writers, teaching methods in translation are still based on a teacher-centered ideology that sees teachers as truth-beholders who pass on knowledge to passive students. In her study, Varney (2009) investigated the value of social constructivism as a viable approach to translator training. The researcher was interested in finding out the best way to design and implement a translation class inspired by social

constructivist principles that would offer a collaborative learning option to imitate the social environment in which translators often work. The researcher was not only interested in providing students with an opportunity to develop a variety of skills (other than language skills) and to improve their overall competence but also to create an environment in which the students were individually responsible for the successful completion of a translation task. Varney carried out an action research study involving a class of 33 students in their third year at a translation program. The students were asked to collaborately translate a website for an NGO and they were given a questionnaire at the end of the course to find out their reaction to the project and their development of translation competence. The researcher found that the level of motivation was high among the students, who expressed that they had an opportunity to improve their translation skills. The collaborative learning setting and the fact that learning was situated in a tangible social environment that matched more closely the professional workplace favoured the students' appropriation of cultural and professional knowledge and allowed them to reflect on their own identity as translators. However, it seems relevant to point out that the Vygotskian perspective of social constructivism associated to the gradual release of responsibility in the learning process is not evident in this study. This theory focuses mainly on the influence of social interaction in the development of cognitive processes. Derived from this theory is a concept known as "the zone of proximal development" which refers to the process in which learning and development always take place on two different but mutually constitutive contexts: the social and the psychological (Dimitriadis and Kamberelis, 2006). Collaborative interaction techniques, which are based on Vygotsky's sociolinguistic theory of language learning, favour the development of processes of negotiation of meaning among students, which are necessary as a preliminary step to learning in translation training.

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Finally, Kelly (2008) argues that in the current literature, when translation competence is investigated, no attention is paid to the translator trainer competence. Most translation programs hire professional translators to train future translators. Professional experience is required for most university postings and it is expected that trainers will not only teach but also be involved in various administrative functions and research projects. Even though a method description for specific levels of the translation program is lacking, there is an interest in finding a link between task-based and project-based approaches. The manner in which students learn is an area that has not been sufficiently researched within translation studies and not much has been investigated regarding quality assurance of actual translation teaching practice and its implications, including enhancement of practice. The researcher argues that when designing training courses, it is recommended that learning outcomes be established, considering social or market needs. Research in teacher training has demonstrated that if the training is directly related to the trainer's actual context, it is much more valuable. The main goal of this study is to draw "a profile of and identify training needs among translator trainers at Spanish universities" (p.116). The researcher conducted a survey by which trainers were asked to comment on their education, professional experience in translation, and teacher experience among others. Results yielded that most of the respondents have an undergraduate or postgraduate degree in the field and professional experience as well as fairly substantial teaching experience. The respondents situate their competence at a mid-level and identify training needs in: the discipline, the profession, teaching methods and assessment.

1.7 Theoretical Framework

Having reviewed the literature with respect to translation competence and translation pedagogy from both a psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic perspective, the theoretical frameworks that inform and help interpret the data collected for this study will now be outlined. This framework is based on an integrated concept of translation (considered as a textual, communicative, and cognitive activity), competency-based language theories and socio-constructivist theories.

Albir (2001) views translation as being characterized by three essential features: a communication act, an intertextual operation (not interlingual) and a mental process. The goal of translation is primarily communicative and a translator not only considers the linguistic elements that come into play but also the communicative intentions associated with the text, namely the target audience and the commissioned task requirements. With this in mind, the translator follows different procedures and makes different decisions to obtain different solutions to the same translation problems. By translating a text, as opposed to isolated and decontextualized units, the translator needs to work with textual operating mechanisms, such as coherence and cohesion and different text types and genres that differ with each language. Since translation is a subjective activity that needs a specific competence (translation competence), the translator needs to follow a mental process. This entails understanding the text in order to reformulate it by using target language mechanisms and taking into account the target audience and the translation goal.

Neubert and Shreve (1992) share the view that translation is not simply a linguistic process because understanding translation cannot be based on the premise of a single aspect of

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the process, such as linguistic ability; it must take into account the communicative role that translation has. Since translation is text, “translation is a textual process in which linguistic form and process are incorporated” (p. 10), then the text becomes the primary object of translation study. The authors argue that because the text is an integrating concept in translation, translation theory is concerned with three “incarnations” (p. 14) of the text: the source text, the target text and the virtual translation. The latter is an integral framework of the possible relations between a source text and a variety of potential target texts. It constitutes a mental process of the elements and relationships that exist between the original source and the “not-yet-realized target” (p.14). Since the process of translation is a set of decision-making stages, a theory of translation should try to understand how this decision-making process works, how the mental representation of the virtual translation is conceived and how it produces a target language text. Neubert and Shreve (1992) define a theory of translation as follows:

A theory of translation should explicate how the professional translator moves from the concrete source text, to the construction of the virtual translation, to producing the most appropriate target text. It should explicate the factors that play into the decision-making including communicative function, target language textual style, potential audience, and the requirements of the host culture and linguistic system. (pp.15-16)

Neubert and Shreve (1992) argue that an integrated theory of translation is possible and they describe the partial theories that have influenced translation studies: the critical, practical, linguistic, text-linguistic, sociocultural, computational, and psycholinguistic models. These models vary in how they view the translation process and the target text as a product of this process. For the critical model, for example, the translation product is the starting point, focusing

on the translation task as a result, not as a process. Contrary to this model, the practical model starts from the source text in an attempt to understand the target text through a study of the complex process of translation (translation behaviours and strategies).

According to Nord (1991), translation is situated within the framework of a communicative situation and it is based upon linguistic units called *source* and *target texts*. This communicative situation is especially different from others in that it includes the participation of two cultures. Also, the message transmitted between the sender or text producer and the recipient is created using two different linguistic codes. In order for a text to take place, non-linguistic elements are essential to the identification of linguistic features. The text is passed on through an appropriate medium and it will have the purpose of fulfilling the intended communicative purpose. The “communicative-act-in situation” (p. 12) constitutes the framework in which the text and its purpose take place. As a result, the text can only be interpreted and analyzed related to the framework of the communicative-act-in situation. This concept of text also includes structural and pragmatic-situational aspects.

Whereas a text is considered to be a communicative activity, the participants in that communicative situation become prime factors. In a translation-oriented analysis, these factors and their purpose need to be considered first and then subsequently compared to the corresponding factors in the target text situation. From a functional point of view, equivalence between source and target text is deemed subject to all possible translation scopes. This is based on the *skopos* theory which argues that the overall reference for the translator should not be the original text and its function but the function or set of functions the target text is to achieve in the target culture. The intended translation *skopos* is mainly established by the addressees of the translated text and sets the standard for any decision the translator makes during the translation

process. In other words, the translation skopos is the function or purpose of the target text (Nord, 1991a, Nord, 1991b).

What translators do, according to Nord's view of text is to compare and negotiate the factors and conditions of both the source text and the target text in situation. While the source text exists, the target text, however, does not. In order to address this problem, the translator must consider "the intrinsic interdependence between situation and text", in which case, "the description of one should provide valuable information on the other" (p.44). By analyzing the translation skopos, using the same model as for the source text analysis, the translator achieves a "projection" which will serve as a model for the intended translation (p.45). This procedure allows the translator to compare the analysis of the source text with that of the target text in order to make the appropriate decisions concerning what elements of the source text need to be adapted into the target text and how these elements will be adapted.

In this sense, Vermeer (1999) regards the translator as "the expert in translational action" (p. 222). He defines the translational action as leading to a target text. The translator is then responsible for the performance of the translation task and for the final product. The task is successfully carried out as long as the skopos is duly defined from the translator's point of view.

Nord's framework is appropriate for the analysis of the data to be collected in this research as it is applicable to all languages and to any text type. Moreover, it is particularly useful for the training of translators as it is intended to guide the key steps of the translation process as some of the fundamental subcompetences detailed herein are involved. These subcompetences are text reception, analysis, and production, research, transfer, translation

quality assessment, linguistic and cultural (p. 47). These subcompetences are not named in the same manner by the PACTE Group but they are very closely related.

Delisle (2005) argues that any pedagogical strategy applied to the pragmatic teaching of translation has to be based upon valid theoretical principles or else trainers risk being either too prescriptive or too flexible. To be able to teach translation, an intuitive idea of translation and linguistics will not suffice: a good translator is not necessarily a good teacher. A good translator trainer does not offer solutions to translation problems; he/she guides trainees through the translation process. As previously discussed, translating implies a *know how*, therefore teaching translation implies the creation of a *set of methodologies* that will guide the trainee through the translation task, which involves preparation, execution, and resolution of translation problems.

Competency-Based Education (CBE) is an educational movement that focuses on learning outcomes in the development of language programs. This movement looks at what the learners can do with their language skills no matter how they learnt them. The focus on output rather than on input makes this movement very appropriate to translator training in that it points to the competencies of the learners. CBE started in the United States in the 1970s and it is especially applicable to translation as it defines “educational goals in terms of precise measurable descriptions of the knowledge, skills, and behaviours students should possess at the end of the course of study” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 141). As Albir (2007) refers to it, Competency-Based Training (CBT) is a suitable framework for translator training as learning objectives are defined according to competences and these competences can be assigned to discipline-related contents in order to guide teaching units by establishing learning activities and creating evaluation tools. This framework is concerned with formative assessment and it

integrates cooperative learning, problem-based and task-based learning. This framework is built upon constructivist and socioconstructivist learning theories. Integration is the fundamental principle behind CBT as it groups all the components that make up each competence, it integrates the several competences that define a given profile and it includes teaching, learning, and assessment by integrating tasks (Albir, 2007).

According to Kiraly (2000), from a social constructivist approach, individuals “create or construct meanings and knowledge through participation in interpersonal, intersubjective interaction” (p. 4). As our own understanding of the world around us cannot be identical because of our different life experiences, language serves as a common interpretive means that allows for communication to take place. As we become a part of the world, we become “acculturated” in the communities where we grow up. Any learning experiences that happen after this acculturation can be considered as a type of “re-acculturation” (p. 4), as a process of becoming more proficient at thinking, acting, and communicating in our own communities. Kiraly (2000) argues that for translation education, the implications of this epistemological presupposition is the need for a radical re-evaluation of instructors’ and students’ roles in the classroom, a new perspective on testing and a redirection of educational objectives and methods. He goes on to say that there is a need for comprehensive degree programs for translator training, which implies the professionalization of translator education. Moreover, the social, inter-subjective nature of meaning, thought, and mind provide a more cohesive framework for the creation of an approach to translator education than a combination of a cognitive/social approach. From a constructivist view of meaning, each individual mind is a “self-creating and self-regulating system that perpetually reconstructs itself by producing and modifying its own meanings or models of that real world” (p. 16). Learning takes place when we realize that the mental models that we have

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created of the world do not match new experiences. The consequences of this view are key both for the development of the emerging translator's image of the translation process objectives and their personal experience of the translator training. Kiraly (2000) proposes an alternative approach that views the task of the translation student and instructor in a completely different way, challenging the notion that knowledge is static. In his own words:

...I propose that translator education be seen as a dynamic, interactive process based on learner empowerment; on the emancipation of students from the domination of the teacher and from the institution as the designated distributors and arbiters of truth; on change in focus from the tyranny of teaching, to learning as a collaborative, acculturative, and quintessentially social activity. (pp. 17-18)

Finally, Kiraly (2000) posits that while it is important to pass on traditional knowledge and past experiences through the educational process, it is fundamental to train translators for lifelong learning. This means empowering them to adapt existing tools to be applied to new situations and create new ones to meet future challenges. For the purposes of this dissertation, Kiraly's social constructivist view of translator training, which finds its roots in Vygotsky's theory of social constructivism, as previously outlined, is useful in linking empirical observations of the translation process in professional translators with their own different experiences in translation training, directly related to their zone of proximal development. It certainly serves as a framework for analyzing the implications of a social constructivist view of translation education in the development of translation competence.

Chapter 2: Study rationale and research questions

A recurrent issue in the literature reviewed in chapter 1 is the fact that there has been a shift in translation studies from translation as a *product* to translation as a *process* (Wolfgang, 1992; Fraser, 1996; Alves, 1996; Lee- Jahnke, 2005; PACTE Group, 2005; Zhong, 2008). Therefore, a new “process-oriented, performance-analytical discipline” has developed (Wolfgang, 1992). Most of the data that resulted from early studies of the translation process reflects “actually occurring data” mainly focused on students and language learners. The empirical research on the translation process presented above does not offer definite answers on the link between translation competence and its value for the training of professional translators. Studies focusing on trainee translators and professional translators differ in that the latter offers more conclusions in terms of successful strategies for solving problems, a “working set of principles” (Fraser, 1996, p. 94) for approaching a translation or a specific communicative task.

Some of the empirical studies that have analyzed the process of translation have also looked at the methodological aspect of translator training and the impact it can have on the development of translation competence (Seguinot, 1988). Campbell (1991) has suggested that curriculum should include a breakdown of translation competence components, with the goal of teaching not only aspects of transfer between languages but also more pragmatic elements of the translation process, such as decision making and extralinguistic strategies. Translation training should also be based on skill and task objectives, rather than only focusing on the systematic teaching of linguistic aspects of translation.

Jääskeläinen (1993) sets a difference between local and global strategies and argues that teaching should focus on the strategies that produce a high quality translation. Lörcher (1996)

states that since process-oriented research into translation is descriptive, the interest should not lie on *how* translators translate but how they *should* translate. Along the same lines, Alves (1996) suggests that translators need to become more aware of how they translate and that they should be able to explain it and share it. Zhong (2008) argues that a methodology of self-directed learning can help to advance the translation process in translator trainees when well-defined objectives are set and students are aware of their own weaknesses and strengths and access to resources. However, as Shreve et al. (1993) and Königs and Kaufmann (1996) conclude, the process of translation is so individually unique among translators that it cannot be described or represented by general models. The authors posit that translation courses should include a systematic training on the diverse strategies that translators use to solve translation problems with a continuous self-reflection on mental processes.

Another issue that arises from the research conducted on translation processes is how professional translators and non-professional translators develop and apply translation competence. Jääskeläinen (1996) argues that translation does not become easier with professional experience although the nature of the task and the professional ability of the translator may change. The PACTE group (2005) has suggested that the degree of expertise has an impact on the translation process and, eventually, the product. Therefore, understanding translator actions can shed more light on decision-making in the translation process and the interaction between internal and external support.

The literature revealed that many studies in translation are leaning towards a model that values the development of translation competence (Alves, 1996; Fraser, 1996; Jääskeläinen, 1993; Kelly, 2008; Königs & Kaufmann, 1996; Lee-Jahnke, 2005; Lobo et al, 2007; Lörscher,

1996; PACTE group, 2005; Zhong, 2008). In addition, as previously pointed out, there seems to be a need for research evidence that can help better understand translation processes (Albir, 2001; Delisle & Lee-Jahnke, 1998; Gile, 2005; Kiraly, 1995; Way, 2008).

It is possible that more research in translation competence could help build a competence-based curriculum that would enhance a systematic approach to translator training. According to Albir (2007) there are very few studies in the literature that have analyzed the acquisition of translation competence. She goes on to argue that there are no empirical studies of the translation competence acquisition process in its entirety, except for the PACTE dynamic model (Albir 2007; PACTE Group, 2008) which was intended as a contribution in order to fulfill the gap. Moreover, most of the studies focusing on translation competence use trainee translators or recently graduated translators with no professional experience as participants to draw conclusions on successful strategies for solving translation problems. Studies whose participants are professional translators yield more findings on a “working set of principles” for tackling a specific translation task (Fraser, 1996).

In light of these findings, this study will investigate the following research questions:

1. What subcompetences of translation competence do professional translators use when translating?
2. In what ways do these subcompetences differ in novice and experienced translators?
3. How do translators perceive their use of subcompetences during the translation task?

2.1 Research methods

2.1.1 Participants

Twelve professional translators from one language combination (English-Spanish/Spanish-English) were recruited. This language combination was chosen due to the researcher's professional experience and language mastery. The participants were divided into two groups of six translators each. The first group consisted of recent graduates with no professional experience from the Translation Certificate offered by the School of Translation at Glendon College, York University (English-Spanish/Spanish-English). The second group was made up of professional translators accredited by the Canadian Translators, Terminologists and Interpreters Council (CTTIC), who are members in good standing of the Association of Translators and Interpreters of Ontario (ATIO). These translators have ten years of experience or more either in full time employment or as free-lance translators and some of them are graduates of an English-Spanish/Spanish-English translation program (not necessarily from Glendon College). The rationale for the division of the groups into novice and experienced translators is to allow for a specific comparison of two clearly marked stages in professional translation career development and to be able to develop an in-depth description of how these two different groups approach the translation task considering their different use and development of translation competence.

In order to recruit the participants from the first group, the School of Translation at Glendon College was contacted to obtain a list of recent graduates. For the second group, the ATIO website was consulted and potential participants were directly contacted through the website directory. The participants were reached electronically and sent a copy of the introductory letter (appendix I) and informed consent form (appendix II).

2.1.2 Data collection and analysis

At the beginning of the data collection session, participants were asked to respond to an open-ended questionnaire about their translation training and professional experience (appendix III). After the completion of the questionnaire and in order to answer research question number 1: “What subcompetences of translation competence do professional translators use when translating?” participants were asked to translate a short text into their first language (appendix IV). The text is a non-technical article about 300 words long geared towards the tourism field. It presents a variety of translation problems at the lexical, grammatical, transfer, and cultural levels. Some examples of translation problems are: use of tourism-oriented terminology, several proper names with inexistent target language equivalents, and passive voice structures that affect the text style. The participants were allowed to use dictionaries and any tools that they considered necessary, including online resources. They had thirty minutes to complete the questionnaire and one and a half hours to complete the translation task. The translated text provides data about each translator’s use of all five subcompetences according to the definition by the PACTE Group (2008).

In terms of translation protocols for the translation task, participants were asked to use the software *Translog* which records a visual analysis of the process of translation such as deletions, corrections, and text organization (PACTE Group, 2008). They were informed about the fact that *Translog* records every single move during the typing of the translation on the computer. This software made it possible for me to see the translation process in real time once again after the translation had been completed. It also provided me with evidence on the use of the bilingual, extralinguistic, and instrumental subcompetences.

In addition to *Translog*, the researcher directly observed the participants while translating in order to record any physical actions such as pauses, hesitations, and consultation of external support, which could not be recorded by *Translog* (PACTE Group, 2008). This observation was useful in gathering evidence on the use of the instrumental and the strategic subcompetence when translating.

Following the preliminary questionnaire, the translation exercise, and the observation, an in-depth analysis of the rendered data was made and it was then triangulated with the data resulting from *Translog*. At a later date, participants were invited to an individual interview at which time they were asked to respond to a debriefing questionnaire (appendix VI). The debriefing questionnaire consisted of open-ended questions referring to specific problems in the text, the translation process followed during the exercise, and to how training has helped participants be aware of their subcompetences. As think-aloud protocols were not used during the translation task because of possible distraction to the participants, the debriefing questionnaire served as a reflection tool for the participants to discuss their reactions to the translation task in a retrospective manner. By comparing the translated texts from the two different groups, research question number 2 will be answered: "In what ways do these subcompetences differ in novice and experienced translators?" The combination of translation protocols, direct observation and the pre and post-translation questionnaires serve to triangulate the data.

After the completion of the post-translation questionnaire, the participants were interviewed using open-ended questions in order to expand on the information given in both the pre and post-translation questionnaires. They were also asked to reflect on translation problems

encountered during the exercise and solutions offered in each case. The questions focused on the participants' description of the way in which they approach a translation task and the steps they take in completing it. When interviewing the participants, they were also queried about their perception of their own translation subcompetences and how they apply them when translating. The resulting data was used to answer question number 3: "How do translators perceive their use of subcompetences during the translation task?" They were asked to elaborate on their answers to both questionnaires with regard to their acquisition and development of translation competence during and after their training. Individual interviews offered a more detailed and broader description on how translation subcompetences are used during the translation task as well as how they were acquired and developed by the participants. One-hour long interviews were carried out after the completion of the post-translation questionnaire. All interviews were recorded and subsequently transcribed.

The analysis of the translated text is based on the theoretical framework offered by Nord (1991) on source text analysis. The translation samples were qualitatively studied as functional target texts closely related to the source text and specific to the translation skopos (Nord, 1991). Translation errors were qualitatively and quantitatively analyzed and marked as per category codes found in appendix VII. They were also classified according to the PACTE Group's (2008) different translation subcompetences as outlined earlier in this document. Data obtained from the questionnaires and interviews were qualitatively analyzed in order to explore commonalities in translators' use of subcompetences during the translation process. The translated texts and the error-subcompetence analysis, the questionnaires as well as the interview transcripts were cross-checked in order to find common emerging themes. Major categories were identified within and between groups and re-evaluated throughout the duration of the research to conceptualize the

translation process according to years of professional experience. Once these themes were identified, they were discussed with participants so as to verify the researcher's interpretations of the collected data. Because data were collected from different sources, the constant comparative method was used in the analysis phase of the study (Bogdan & Bilken, 2007).

2.1.3 Ethical Considerations

Prior to starting the fieldwork, the required form was submitted to the Human Participants Review Sub-Committee, York University's Ethics Review Board. Following the approval of the study, the participants were asked to sign a consent form informing them about the goal of the study, the manner in which the researcher would deal with the collected data and any other information related to the nature of the study (appendix II). Participation was entirely voluntary and the participants were given the option to withdraw from the study at any time, in which case, all data generated as a consequence of their participation would be destroyed. This was not the case during the course of this study.

The participants' identities were kept confidential and their names were changed in all transcripts or any related documents. The participants were offered the opportunity to review the transcripts of the interviews and suggest any changes they may consider necessary. All transcripts of interviews and related documents are stored in a locked facility. Only the researcher and her supervisor have access to these documents which will be destroyed after a period of five years following the conclusion of the study.

Chapter 3: Findings

As discussed in chapter 2, a case study has been carried out to explore translation as a process and the development and application of translation competence as the central skill in professional translation activity. Twelve professional translators from two language combinations (English-Spanish/Spanish-English) participated in this case study and were divided into two groups: experienced and novice.

3.1 Case study 1: Experienced translators group

3.1.1 Background

For the purposes of this analysis, participants will be referred to as E1, E2, E3, E4, E5, and E6 respectively. The experienced translators group is comprised of six professional translators who have more than ten years of experience in translation. Participants E1, E2, E3, E4, and E6 are native Spanish speakers and participant E5 is a native English speaker. For this translation exercise, participants E1, E2, E3, E4, and E5 translated from English into Spanish and participant E6 translated from Spanish into English. The latter chose to translate into his second language because in his practice he has been translating into English and he felt he would achieve better results this way. Participant E5, who is an English speaker, translated from Spanish into English. Participants E2, E3, E4, E5, and E6 studied their second language in high school and they decided to continue with languages in university. Participant E1 learnt the second language through an exchange program in an English-speaking country. Participants E2 and E5 consider their bilingual subcompetence prior to university to have been limited, participants E3 and E6 consider it to have been very good and participants E1 and E4 consider it to have been excellent. Despite their diverse individual perceptions all of them pursued a career

in translation because they wanted to take advantage of their passion for language, however not all of them hold a university translation degree.

Participants E1, E3, and E4, graduated from an accredited university program in translation in Canada and abroad. Participants E1 and E4 completed a 3 year program in Translation and participant E3 completed a one year program. Participants E2, E5, and E6 became translators with professional experience which started due to specific circumstances that enabled the participants to pursue a career in translation. Participants E1, E3, and E4, who hold a translation degree, recall having taken a variety of courses during their university studies ranging from translation theory, literature, law, language, and ethics to more pragmatic courses to develop their translation skills. All three participants coincide in that practice obtained in university was not sufficient to allow them to become involved in professional translation immediately after graduation.

When asked about their perception on how they learned to translate, participants E1, E2, E3, and E4 indicated it was mainly through practice, participant E6 said it was by looking up terms in the dictionary and participant E5 responded that it was through taking some government sponsored courses on translation given that she did not have a university translation degree.

Participants were asked to comment on how they acquired their professional experience after graduation (or in the absence of a degree, how they started in the profession). All of the participants started doing part time or full time freelance translation for translation agencies, companies or private clients. Participants E4 and E6 are also community interpreters working on a freelance basis. Participants E2 and E5 had management positions (director of the translation

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department or project manager) within a company dealing with translation and editing. Most of the participants' clients include: translation agencies, corporations, government agencies, and individuals seeking immigration related translations.

When asked about what types of texts they usually translate, the majority indicated that they translate legal, business, and medical documents. Other types that were mentioned are tourism and marketing. Participants E2 and E4 mentioned literary texts. With regard to accepting translations that are beyond their extralinguistic subcompetence, participants E1, E2, E3, and E5 said that they do not accept documents that they do not feel comfortable translating given the complexity of the subject matter or the required terminology. Participants E4 and E6 replied that they accept all kinds of documents and they look for the specific resources, such as specialized dictionaries or glossaries or they make sure they have a colleague or an expert on hand to consult or to revise the translation.

Participants were asked to comment on the procedures they follow prior to starting a translation. Participants E1, E2, E3, E4, and E5 stated they usually read the text in its entirety (depending on length), they gather the necessary tools and resources, translate and read it over more than once, and then they proceed to the proofreading. Participants E2, E3, and E5 usually consult an expert or send the translation for revision, proofreading and/or editing to a second translator. The latter depends on the difficulty of the document due to specialized terminology/subject-matter.

3.2 Case study 2: Novice translators group

3.2.1 Background

The novice translators group is comprised of 6 recent graduates from the Translation Certificate offered jointly by the School of Translation and the Department of Spanish Studies at Glendon College, York University (English-Spanish/Spanish-English) who have no professional experience in translation. For the purposes of this analysis, participants will be referred to as N1, N2, N3, N4, N5, and N6 respectively. All six participants translated from Spanish into English. Participants N1, N4, N5, and N6 are native English speakers and participants N2 and N3 are native Spanish speakers. Participants N2 and N3 consider themselves bilingual as they learnt English at a very young age and spoke both languages side by side.

The Translation Certificate offered by Glendon College can be taken concurrently, in conjunction with a program of study leading to a Bachelor of Arts degree, or consecutively, for students who already hold a university degree. It is also intended for professional translators who want to pursue formal professional training. The program consists of 12 courses which include: Spanish Literature and Civilization, Spanish-American Literature, Culture and Society, Specialized Studies in Language, Composition and Translation, Studies in Stylistics and Translation, Documentation, Theory of Translation, Terminology, Specialized Practice of Spanish-English/English-Spanish Translation, Advanced Literary and Cultural Translation, Advanced Spanish-English/English-Spanish Translation: Editing and Revision, and Translation Practicum/Advanced Translation Research Project

Most of the participants studied their second language in high school and in university. Participants N4 learnt the second language through an exchange program in Spain. Participants

N2, N3, and N4 consider their bilingual subcompetence prior to university to have been excellent, and participants N1, N5, and N6 consider it to have been very good. Only participants N2 and N5 enrolled in the Translation Certificate Program because they wanted to become a professional translator. Participants N1, N3, N4, and N6 enrolled in the program either to continue their studies or just because they enjoyed learning languages and wanted to improve on them.

When asked about what courses they have taken and which ones were the most useful to them, participants N1, N2, N4, N5, and N6 recall having taken a theory of translation course, a documentation course, a terminology course, and a translation placement or project. Perceptions about how they learnt to translate are varied among the participants. Participant N3 mentioned that while the theory was useful, it was only practice after university that helped in the learning process. On the other hand, participants N2 and N5 stated that it was the theory studied during the Certificate that was most important in the learning process. Participant N4 indicated that it was through reading or hearing expressions in the second language that translation skills were developed, despite having studied theory of translation during university training. Participant N1 said that it was partly the theory and partly the practice that helped to learn how to translate. Finally, participant N6 indicated that theory did not serve the purpose and that it was only through practice that translation skills were acquired. In fact, this participant added that she was not “taught how to translate” through theory and that translation skills were “practiced” in class.

Participants were asked to comment on whether they obtained professional experience after graduation. None of the participants have professional experience but participant N1 and N6 mentioned that they volunteer their translation services in order to acquire experience in the

field. Participants N5 and N6 currently hold project management or bilingual positions at translation agencies or governmental institutions but do not practice translation per se.

When asked about what types of texts they feel comfortable translating, participants N1 and N3 indicated legal or general documents, participant N5 and N2 mentioned literary documents and participants N4 and N6 said they would translate any type of document except for technical or specialized documents. With regard to accepting translations that are beyond their extralinguistic subcompetence, participants N1, N2, N3, N4, and N5 said that they do not accept documents that they do not feel comfortable translating given the complexity of the subject matter or the required terminology. Participant N6 indicated that she would accept all kinds of documents because every assignment can be a learning experience.

Participants were asked to comment on the procedures they follow prior to starting a translation. All of the participants stated they usually read the text in its entirety, look up problematic terms, translate sentence by sentence, read it over, and proofread. All of them said that in a real professional situation they would try to have the translation proofread by a colleague if possible. Participant N1 mentioned that she creates a terminological database for every new document she translates. Then she writes a rough translation that she revises and rewrites. This participant also indicated that she would send the translation for proofreading to a colleague.

3.3 Data analysis

In order to analyze the results obtained from the translations and questionnaires completed by the participants during the data collection phase, this study will use the model

presented by the PACTE Group (2008) on translation competence. This analysis will be divided into the following subcompetences: bilingual, extralinguistic, knowledge about translation, instrumental, and strategic subcompetences. Within each subcompetence, segments will be analyzed based on the degree of expertise: experienced and novice participants. The analysis will also be divided according to the target language of the source texts.

Specific source-text segments that offer key translation problems (PACTE Group, 2011) will be the subject of analysis throughout this chapter. Segments will be analyzed based on the category codes found in appendix VII which are divided into two categories: major and minor translation error. Acceptability indicators which measure the participants' expertise in translation in terms of the offered solution will be used, as outlined by PACTE (2008). The criteria are divided into acceptable solution, semi-acceptable solution, and not acceptable solution, based on whether the translation effectively communicates the meaning of the source text and the function of the target text in an idiomatic way, and whether it uses appropriate language conventions.

Based on PACTE (2011, p. 324), an acceptable solution includes, in the target text, all relevant connotations of the source text that pertain to the meaning, text function, and language use. A semi-acceptable solution includes some of the relevant connotations of the source text and keeps the target text coherent in terms of the meaning, text function, and language use. An unacceptable solution does not include in the target text any of the connotations of the source text that are related to the meaning, text function, and language use.

3.4 Bilingual subcompetence: definition

According to PACTE (2008), bilingual subcompetence is defined as mainly procedural knowledge used in order to communicate in two languages, including: pragmatic, sociolinguistic, textual, grammatical, and lexical knowledge. Pragmatic knowledge refers to the aspects of meaning that cannot be predicted only by knowledge of the language and it is based on knowledge about the physical and social world (Peccei, 1999). Sociolinguistic knowledge refers to the way individual speakers use the language and how it varies in different regions and situations, it is linked to both linguistic and social structure (Meyerhoff, 2006). Textual knowledge refers to the full understanding of a text that can be measured by analyzing the superstructure and conventions of a given text. In the case of specialized translation, the main problem that translators face is related not only to the subject-matter but also to the text itself (Acuyo-Verdejo, 2004). Grammatical knowledge relates to form and meaning through the correct use of syntax, morphology, and semantics of terms and structures (Purpura, 2004). Lexical knowledge is related to the ability to identify words through vocabulary use in context, vocabulary size, word characteristics, and lexicon organization (Chapelle, 1994).

3.4.1 Experienced translators group: Source text translation problem segments (English-Spanish)

Four experienced participants translated the English source text into Spanish. For the purposes of this analysis, they will be referred to as E1, E2, E3, and E4 respectively. A total of five segments related to the bilingual subcompetence will be discussed.

3.4.1.1 Segment 1

“This Toronto *hotspot* is strictly *upper crust*.”

This sentence presents two problems at the lexical level: term choice and re-expression. As the notion of “term” will be used throughout the data analysis, it seems useful to define it as it applies to the field of translation studies, more specifically within the discipline of terminology. A “term” is the basic unit of terminology and it differs from “word” as it refers to special conceptual entities, properties, activities or relations specific to a certain subject field. Terms usually have variants for different contexts but there might be cases in which a term may not have an equivalent in the target language. Translators usually work with term variants unless a concept has only one designation (Baker, 2001).

In this segment, the terms “hotspot” and “upper crust” do not have a direct translation in the tourism context and thus require paraphrasing and re-expression of the sentence to fit the context. Participants E1, E2, and E3 offered an acceptable solution to the term “hotspot”, namely “popular”, “lugar de moda”, and “bullicioso”. All three translations convey the meaning of “popular spot” of the source text. Participant E4 offered the term “centro de moda” which is not an acceptable solution since it refers to “fashion” instead of “popular”, thus departing from the source text sense of the term “hotspot”.

For the term “upper crust” only participant E4 captured the sense of the text and translated it as “de categoría” implying it is an “elite” or “high level” area. The other three participants provided translations that are either literal: “de clase alta” or that slightly depart from the meaning: “el más costoso” (the most expensive).

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When asked about this particular problem, participants E1, E2, and E3 said that they did not know the meaning of these problem terms and that they did a search in different dictionaries and on Google. Even though they were not completely sure of the translations they provided, they indicated that if they had had more time, they would have consulted someone or they would have done a more thorough search using other tools. Participant E4 said that she did not consider these terms to be a translation problem and that she was satisfied with her translation.

For this segment, experienced translators used mainly their pragmatic and lexical knowledge although in some cases and, because of time constraints, this knowledge was not sufficient to solve problems at the term choice level. This could cause an ethical dilemma as translators should always ensure that the meaning of the source text is faithfully transferred to the target text while at the same time, respecting cultural nuances. In this case, participants provided a term of which they were not certain, all difficulties considered. The only one participant that captured the meaning of the problem term based her decision mainly on her lexical knowledge and provided an idiomatic term that solved the issue.

3.4.1.2 Segment 2

“It’s a great place to rest between *shopping bouts*.”

Even though this expression does not pose a big challenge, all of the participants provided different translations that are considered worthy of analysis. Only participant E2 provided the appropriate translation “entre compra y compra” which captures the meaning of the English expression in an idiomatic way. The other three participants offered literal equivalents, such as “corridas de las compras”, “salidas de las compras”, and “períodos de compras”. While

these equivalents capture the meaning of the original text, they are not idiomatic in terms of lexicon and style. When participants were asked whether it was hard to find an equivalent for the term “shopping bout”, they all agreed that they could not find an equivalent in the resources they consulted so they provided their own solutions for it. This clearly indicates that participants had limited lexical knowledge on this particular term which, combined with an inability to fully exploit extralinguistic and instrumental subcompetences, resulted in the provision of literal solutions. As mentioned before, even though the term in question is not specialized, it is worth noting that the majority of the participants did not succeed in solving this issue. This is inconsistent with the fact that participants have over ten years of experience in the field and therefore they should be able to solve this type of lexical problem given their translation expertise.

3.4.1.3 Segment 3

“This 13-*acre* historic enclave...”

The term “acre” poses a pragmatic challenge because it is a measurement unit from the Imperial system. Since the target audience for this translation is Spanish-speaking, it is more likely addressed to readers from Latin America or Spain for whom measurements are expressed in accordance to the Metric system. Only participant E2 converted the measurement from “acres” to “hectares”, the rest literally translated the term as expressed in accordance to the Imperial system. When questioned about why they did not convert the measurement, participants E1, E3, and E4 said they did not consider it an impediment for readers or they over sighted this detail during this particular exercise. However, in an authentic situation, they said they would have converted the measurement because they are aware of this pragmatic difference between the

source and the target audiences. They all mentioned that it is customary that translators consult clients on the conditions of the document, namely the target audience, in order to adapt the target text accordingly.

Given the circumstances of this exercise, participants did not conduct themselves as they would normally in their practice, which explains their decision on this particular issue. However, in most cases it appears to be an oversight or limited use of pragmatic skills.

3.4.1.4 Segment 4

“But here you can also freshen up your wardrobe with unique fashions from the hottest Canadian designers, *including* Jeremy Lang and Hoax Couture.”

This sentence presents the grammatical challenge of translating the English gerund into Spanish, considering that Spanish does not accept a gerund as a direct modifier of a noun. Out of the four participants, only participant E3 translated the gerund literally as “incluyendo” whereas the other three offered solutions that did not involve the use of a gerund, such as “entre ellos”, “incluso” or by changing the sentence structure in order to avoid the use of the gerund. When interviewed about their choices, participants E1, E2, and E4 mentioned they were aware of the challenge because they had either studied it in university or they were corrected by a reviser and immediately researched the problem in order to learn about it and be aware of it for future translations. Participant E3 was not aware of the problem as it has never come up in her experience as a translator. She does not remember covering this particular issue in her studies and she thinks that the problem lies in that she has not had a formal contrastive grammar course. She admits that after having come across this problem, it does not sound idiomatic and she

should have been able to notice it had she had more time to analyse the document in a different context.

For this segment, participants used their grammatical knowledge as part of the bilingual subcompetence. It is expected that translators with over ten years of experience will master this common grammatical problem in translation. However, possible causes for the unacceptable solution for this grammatical problem could be short editing time and/or not having covered this topic during training.

3.4.1.5 Segment 5

“Its new name – the *Historic Distillery District* – embraces the area’s rich past and architectural legacy.”

The translation of the proper name *Historic Distillery District* poses a challenge because of the touristic nature of the text and its target audience. Participants E3 and E4 opted for translating the terms with upper case, even though it is not an official translation into Spanish. Participant E1 decided to leave the name in English without offering any explanation to the reader. Participant E2 omitted this sentence by mistake. Participants E3 and E4, who decided to translate the name, indicated that to the best of their knowledge, a proper name is translated only if there is an official equivalent in the source language. Since they could not find an official translation but they considered that the target audience would not be able to understand the English terms, they decided to simplify the task and did not mention the original terms. Participant E1 who decided to keep the terms in English indicated that the general rule of not translating proper names prevailed. She also argued that tourists would not be able to find the Spanish terms in any sign near the site. While they could guess the translation, as the terms are

very similar but in a different order, it would be more helpful if the terms were kept in its original language to accommodate this type of text and target audience.

For this segment, participants used their pragmatic knowledge combined with the knowledge about translation subcompetence. Regardless of their decisions, which are considered acceptable, the fact that they contemplated the term as a problem is indicative of their ability to go beyond the linguistic aspect of the translation and consider the target audience and its implications on the translation task. It also shows that either in their training or in their experience, they have come across non-linguistic issues that are important for producing an idiomatic target text.

3.4.2. Experienced translators group: Source text translation problem segments (Spanish-English)

Two experienced translators translated the Spanish source text into English. They will be referred to as E5 and E6 respectively. A total of five segments related to the bilingual subcompetence will be discussed.

3.4.2.1 Segment 1

“...mercados que *emboban*...”

The verb “emboban” which implies that someone or something generates admiration, poses a lexical challenge at the term choice level. The two participants managed to convey the meaning of the term without offering a literal term choice. Both translations “amazing” and “captivating” are acceptable solutions that keep the essence of the original text. When asked

about their decisions, both participants stated that they had considered several translations before deciding on the ones they provided because they realized that a literal translation would not capture the original idea and it would express the wrong connotation of the term. This approach is representative of the participants' experience in translation given that they pondered upon a simple term that may be easily translated with a literal equivalent if the translator has not had enough practice. For this segment, both participants have made an efficient use of their bilingual subcompetence combined with years of experience and textual knowledge which includes an analysis of the subject-matter and target audience.

3.4.2.2 Segment 2

“Para integrarse de manera presurosa y *mundana* en la cultura guatemalteca...”

The adjective “mundana” constitutes a problem at the lexical level because if translated literally it could create a transfer error. The idea conveyed by this term in this specific text, makes reference to a “worldly” or “high class” living style. Participant E6 translated it as “mundane” which refers to something ordinary, pertaining to everyday life. Participant E5 translated it as “down to earth way” which does not convey the source text meaning either. At the time of the interview both participants indicated that they considered this term not to be a problem and they translated it without consulting any sources or conducting in-depth research about it. When prompted, they realized that it had been an oversight on their part due to the morphological proximity of the terms “mundana” and “mundane”. Both participants admitted that they should have paid closer attention to this term, given their similar nature. Participant E6 commented that he had learned to do this in university when taking a second language course but, due to time constraints, he missed it. He also said that in an authentic translation task, he

would have paid closer attention to this issue. It is surprising that neither participant realized the transfer problem caused by an interference of the translation of the term in question. This can probably be attributed to an insufficient use of the strategic subcompetence which relates to problem identification and solution.

3.4.2.3 Segment 3

“Transmite buenas sensaciones en sus *plazas*...”

The term “plazas” poses a pragmatic challenge because it can have different meanings in different contexts. In this touristic text it refers to an open space often found in Spanish and Latin American cities that is often translated as “square”. Participant E5 provided the equivalent “city squares” while participant E6 translated it as “markets”. This last term is not an acceptable solution as it does not capture the essence of the source text in this context. When asked to reflect on this term choice, participant E6 explained that when doing research, the term “market” seemed to fit better than “square” and without much in-depth analysis, he decided on it. The participant indicated that the two terms did not differ so much in meaning according to his experience. However, according to the Merriam Webster Dictionary, the term market refers to: “a public place where a market is held; *especially*: a place where provisions are sold at wholesale (2): a retail establishment usually of a specified kind”. The term “plaza” as defined by the dictionary of the Real Academia Española refers to a wide and spacious place in a town where several streets can merge and where a market can be held⁷. As in the previous segment, this transfer error can be explained by an insufficient use of the strategic subcompetence which relates to problem identification and solution. It can also be analyzed from the point of view of a

⁷ Own translation.

lack of lexical knowledge within the bilingual subcompetence which is related to the ability to identify terms through vocabulary use in context.

3.4.2.4 Segment 4

“...el *templo del Gran Jaguar*.”

The translation of proper names poses a challenge because of the touristic nature of the text and its target audience. Both participants translated the terms with upper case, even though it is not an official Spanish translation. When interviewed about their choices, both participants indicated that they were aware of the stylistic rule about proper name translation. This rule recommends to leave proper names in the source language and to provide a translation in lower case if an official one is not available. The participants preferred to offer the reader a translation in order to facilitate comprehension. Participant E5 added that in another context, she would have opted for leaving the original proper name in the source language and providing a translation in lower case in between parenthesis, as this is her usual professional practice. She explained that she decided to do it this way because of the touristic nature of the text and the proximity of the terms in both languages. She prioritized the target audience and its ability to understand the terms over stylistic rules about translation which would cause an unnecessary repetition of the terms (Gran Jaguar – Great Jaguar).

3.4.2.5 Segment 5

“Tikal *resiste deslumbrando*...”

This sentence poses a grammatical challenge because of the adverbial value of the gerund in Spanish, which is equivalent to the English construction “by + gerund”. None of the

participants used this construction. Instead, they opted for the gerund without the preposition “by”, thus making the construction confusing and departing from the original meaning which implies that “Tikal still captivates by dazzling (tourists)”⁸. Participant E6 translated it as “Tikal endures it *dazzling* you” and participant E5 offered “Tikal remains *dazzling*”. At the time of the interview, participant E6 pointed out that after reading this sentence again he was not satisfied with the translation he provided as the structure did not seem be clear. He explained that at the time of the revision he probably overlooked this error and that, as it partially changed the meaning, he did not think it would affect the translation to a big extent. Participant E5 said that the meaning was clear and that the construction seemed acceptable according to her own experience.

In this segment, participants used their grammatical knowledge as part of the bilingual subcompetence but they did not succeed in offering an acceptable translation of meaning through the correct use of syntax in this particular structure. One reason for this insufficient use of the subcompetence can be attributed to time limits or simply a lack of training in contrastive structures that enables the identification of a common problem such as the use of gerund.

3.4.3 Novice translators group: Source text translation problem segments (Spanish-English)

The six novice translators translated the Spanish source text into English. They will be referred to as N1, N2, N3, N4, N5, and N6 respectively. A total of five segments related to the bilingual subcompetence will be discussed.

⁸ Own translation

3.4.3.1 Segment 1

“...mercados que *emboban*...”

All six participants were able to keep the meaning of the term without using a literal term choice. They opted for the translations “amazing”, “spellbinding”, and “captivating” which are acceptable solutions that keep the essence of the original text and are not literal. When queried about their decision, participants N1, N3, N4, and N6 indicated that they did some research because they did not know the term or were unsure of how to translate it. All participants said they found the target language equivalent on an online resource and they did not have to spend a long time researching. Participant N2 said that she did not remember why she chose the term but she knew it from previous experiences. Participant N5 stated that she had used the term before and did not have to do research. She also indicated that the construction had to be modified in order to offer an idiomatic term.

For this segment, some participants used their bilingual subcompetence in identifying the term and deciding on the best equivalent for it. Those participants who ignored the meaning of the term used their instrumental subcompetence in absence of the bilingual one. First, they identified the need for external support, then they selected an appropriate resource, and finally they made a decision based on the suitability of the target term in the context of the target text.

3.4.3.2 Segment 2

“Para integrarse de manera presurosa y *mundana* en la cultura guatemalteca...”

In contrast to the expert group, only participant N4 captured the meaning of the source text by translating it as “sophisticated”. She mentioned that she had an idea of what the term might mean but she did a quick search to confirm her suspicions. Participants N3 and N5 omitted the term. When queried about their decision to omit the term, participant N3 said that she did not know the term and she did not think it would change the general sense of the text if she omitted it. She did not want to spend the time researching an unimportant term given the time limit. The other participant said it was an oversight.

Participants N1 and N6 opted for an inadequate sense of the term by translating it as “everyday”. This target term is completely opposite to the meaning of the source term. Participant N2 used the term “rich”, which will be considered a semi-acceptable solution as it is closer to the original sense than the other options. At the time of the interview, participants N1, N2 and N6 indicated that they did not know that there was more than one sense to the term and did not do enough research to come to that realization.

In this case, the participants who did not capture the right sense of the source term did not properly use their strategic subcompetence because, even if they did the research and thus used their instrumental subcompetence, they did not opt for the appropriate alternative for the translation of the term. This may have been caused by the absence of bilingual subcompetence and lack of time to properly analyze the results of their research efforts.

3.4.3.3 Segment 3

“Transmite buenas sensaciones en sus *plazas*...”

Participants N1, N2, and N4 decided to keep the borrowed term “plazas” and participants N3, N5, and N6 translated it as “squares”. Both alternatives are perfectly acceptable solutions because they capture the meaning of the original term in an idiomatic way. Participants N1 and N4, who decided not to translate the term, mentioned that having the Spanish term can make it simpler for readers to relate to signage or to proper names because the term is perfectly acceptable and well known and used in English. Participant N2 said she did not research the term because she was aware of the fact that the term is used in English and it is borrowed from Spanish so there was no debate on whether to translate it or not. These participants used their combined pragmatic and lexical knowledge to make a decision based on the context and target audience.

3.4.3.4 Segment 4

“...el *templo del Gran Jaguar*.”

For this segment, all six participants translated the terms with capital letters either as “Grand Jaguar” or “Great Jaguar”. When asked to comment on their decision, all participants said that they translated it because they either wanted to simplify it for the reader or because it would be repetitive to include the English in between parentheses, given the nature of the source text.

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Participants N2 and N5 indicated that they did a search on Google in order to confirm the English translation and that they realized that all related English-speaking websites had it translated, so they decided to follow in their steps. Participant N4 mentioned that she was unsure of whether to add the English in between parentheses as she learnt to do in university. She finally decided not to do it because the equivalents were similar and it would seem as a repetition.

All participants in this segment used their pragmatic knowledge combined with their knowledge about translation subcompetence which dictates style related solutions for pragmatic challenges such as simplifying a text according to the target audience by considering the consequences for the textual aspect of the target terminology.

3.4.3.5 Segment 5

“Tikal resiste *deslumbrando*...”

Participants N2, N5, and N6, and offered alternative structures that do not accurately capture the sense of the source text, but can be considered close equivalents although they do not mirror the original gerund structure, for example: “Tikal continues to dazzle” and “Tikal to this day remains a dazzling site”. Participant N4 opted to use the gerund but in an alternative structure that still keeps the meaning intact: “Tikal holds back while dazzling”. Participant N1 offered a completely different structure without using the gerund that slightly deviates from the original meaning, thus considered a semi-acceptable solution: “Tikal does not fail to impress”. Participant N3 did not capture the meaning of the source text and did not use the gerund construction: “Tikal remains dazzled”. This option changes the meaning of the source text thus

causing a transfer error that can be detrimental for the reader as it communicates a completely different meaning.

When queried about their choices, participants N2, N4, and N5 who offered alternative structures said that they did not consider the said structures to be a problem. They also mentioned that they understood its meaning and tried to avoid the gerund structure in order not to obscure the meaning or damage the style. Participant N6 mentioned that she did not recall having any issues with the structure but that she was aware of the difficulty because she had studied it in university. Participant N1 mentioned that she struggled with the structure for sometime but after considering various options opted to sacrifice the structure in order to guarantee that meaning would remain a priority. Participant N3 said that she had some difficulty with this structure. She also stated that she was not entirely satisfied with it and had no choice but to use the one option because of time constraints. She said that in an authentic situation, if possible, she would take more time to reflect on it or perhaps consult a colleague.

Except for participant N3 who failed to yield the meaning of the source term, all other participants used either their grammatical knowledge because they knew the challenge in the contrastive structures. An explanation for this can be the fact that all participants are formally trained translators who have had instruction on grammatical challenges such as this one through university. They applied this knowledge efficiently by choosing an acceptable solution that captures the meaning while rendering an idiomatic structure in the target text.

3.5 Extralinguistic subcompetence: definition

This subcompetence seems to play a major role in determining the quality of the target text. Kim (2006) argues that the notion of “unsuccessful translation” which is usually linked to linguistic issues is not valid since a translator who makes exclusive use of his/her linguistic abilities does not reach the notional level of a source text and tends to offer literal equivalents that do not capture its true meaning. Kim (2006) suggests that extralinguistic knowledge “supersedes” linguistic knowledge in solving comprehension issues in translation and that it does so by allowing the translator to carry out a deeper translation process. In his study, Kim (2006) found that experienced participants were able to make inferences about cultural challenges in the source text by drawing on their own experience and knowledge of the world combined with an effective use of the instrumental subcompetence not for establishing meaning but for refining it through documentation. Consulting a dictionary in this study was observed as the last resort to solving an extralinguistic problem in the source text.

According to PACTE (2008), the extralinguistic subcompetence consists of general and field specific declarative knowledge, including bicultural, encyclopaedic, and subject knowledge. Declarative knowledge is acquired as a result of exposure to information and it is easily verbalized. It can be defined as the “know what”, as opposed to procedural knowledge or “know how” (Alves dos Santos, 2003). Bicultural knowledge presupposes the ability to have more than one set of cultural tools to make sense of the world. This knowledge generates competent behaviours in three ways: creative conceptual expansion of ideas, discovery, adjustment, and integration of new attitudes and values from the second culture, and better intercultural interaction quality (Kitayma & Cohen, 2007). Encyclopaedic knowledge encompasses a structured knowledge of the world aside from that of the language system through the lenses of a

linguistic unit, such as a lexical item (Huang, 2012). This type of knowledge plays a key role in pragmatics which is closely linked to the bilingual subcompetence. Subject knowledge refers to a highly specialized expertise in a specific domain which implies broad terminology management. Although not active and available all the time, translators must know how to access it and retrieve it when needed (Neubert, 2000).

3.5.1 Experienced translators group: Source text translation problem segments (English-Spanish)

3.5.1.1 Segment 1

“Hailed as the “*Mink Mile*,” Bloor-Yorkville is home to high-end designers like Tiffany and Chanel.”

Before any analysis is carried out, it seems useful to clarify that the segments in this section were chosen due to their cultural associations to the source languages and because they are not easily found in external sources, thus making it vital for participants to exercise their extralinguistic subcompetence.

In this sentence the terms “Mink Mile” refer to a stretch of Bloor Avenue between Yonge Street and Avenue Road and their side streets. This is one of the most popular and trendy shopping areas in Toronto, with several well-known fashion and jewelry stores. Participant E3 borrowed these terms in the translation using both original terms in English and participant E2 translated the term “Mile” and left “Mink” in English. The latter also explained it in the target language as “making reference to the expensive fur coat”. However, she did not transfer the figurative meaning of “fashion area”. When asked about her choice, participant E2 mentioned

that she believed the “Mink Mile” referred to the actual fur coat and by translating it literally, she wanted to avoid any ambiguities in the translation. She stated that she did not realize that it was referring to fashion. Participant E3 said that she did not know the meaning of the expression and she could not find it in the few dictionaries she consulted for this translation. Due to time constraints, she decided to leave it in the original. She considered explaining it in between brackets but she realized that in this type of text it would look awkward. She pointed out that in a real situation she would have done a more in-depth research and she would have consulted a colleague or an expert.

In this case, both participants failed to apply their encyclopaedic knowledge as they did not interpret the meaning of the source terms correctly and were not able to render an equivalent translation. However, they could have compensated for the absence of the encyclopaedic knowledge by using their instrumental subcompetence to research the terms in several sources. In the case of one of the translators, the research option was not considered due to the fact that the participant ignored the real meaning of the term. In the case of the other participant, even if she did consider the research option, she could not solve the problem due to time constraints.

Participants E1 and E4 provided a more idiomatic equivalent such as “paseo de la moda” or centro de la moda”. When interviewed about their choices, participant E4 argued that when she could not find the translation in the dictionaries she consulted, she decided to do a quick search on Google. She confirmed her suspicion that the term was related to fashion or a very exclusive area. Participant E1 had the same challenge but she did not conduct a very thorough research, she simply trusted her instinct that the expression could not be translated literally and therefore tried to find an equivalent that would capture the idea of an “expensive area”. In the

case of these two participants, an adequate combination of both the extralinguistic and instrumental subcompetences allowed them to solve the problem effectively.

3.5.1.2 Segment 2

"Its new name – the Historic Distillery District – embraces the area's rich past and architectural legacy."

As discussed in 3.4.1.5, this segment poses the problem of whether to translate the proper name or not because of the touristic nature of the text. In 3.4.1.5, these problem terms were analyzed from a bilingual subcompetence point of view. In this section, it will be analyzed from an extralinguistic point of view. Participants E3 and E4, who opted for the translation of the terms, applied their bicultural knowledge and made the decision in order to facilitate the task for Spanish-speaking readers who might not understand the English properly. On the other hand, participant E1 who decided to keep the original English terms based her decision on the premises that readers would not find a Spanish-speaking sign and they would not serve the purpose of the source text.

In these examples, participants applied both their pragmatic knowledge and extralinguistic subcompetence in order to best serve the purposes of the text. Both decisions are acceptable solutions for this type of problem because they did not affect the original message and they effectively translated it in the context of this particular text.

3.5.2 Experienced translators group: Source text translation problem segments (Spanish-English)

3.5.2.1 Segment 1

“Dos: probar los muslos crujientes de pollo campero.”

The terms *pollo campero* refer to a type of chicken that is typical from Guatemala because of the fast food chain of the same name which first opened there in 1971. These terms generate a problem because of the need to explain the cultural background behind it. Participants E5 and E6 chose to translate the terms with an equivalent that clarifies the type of chicken it is but does not make it clear for readers that it is referring to the fast food chain. Participant E5 offered the equivalent “free-range chicken thighs” and she argued that she personally knew the brand. However, she was not sure whether it was referring to the brand name or if it was just a specific term for that type of chicken. When asked about how she felt with her decision to find an equivalent, she admitted she was satisfied. She added that it would not be necessary to explain or make a reference to the brand name as in the source text it appears in lowercase. Participant E6 said he was not familiar with the terms and he did not conduct an extensive research about it, he simply opted for an equivalent that would clarify the terms. He offered the terms “rural chicken” which translates as “countryside” chicken. When asked about his decision, participant E6 declared that at the time it did not occur to him that it could refer to the fast food chain and had he had more time for research, he would have probably found it and made some kind of adjustment to accommodate the cultural meaning.

In this case, both participants provided an acceptable solution but did not completely render the term in the target language. They did not apply their bicultural and encyclopaedic

knowledge about a specific Guatemalan cultural issue. Once again, time constraints did not allow for the participants to do a proper use of their instrumental subcompetence in order to research the terms.

3.5.3 Novice translators group: Source text translation problem segments (Spanish-English)

3.5.3.1 Segment 1

“Dos: probar los muslos crujientes de pollo campero.”

The terms pollo campero can either refer to the chicken type or to the food chain that made it popular. This group of participants chose a variety of equivalent options but no participants made reference to the fast food chain. Participants N1, N3, and N4 decided to use *country chicken thighs*, translating the term “campero” as referring to the type of chicken that is produced in the countryside. In this example, participants did apply their encyclopaedic knowledge but they did not capture the full meaning of the original term.

Participants N2, N5, and N6 offered “pollo campero (campero chicken)”, “country style chicken” or “free-range chicken thighs” respectively. Participant N2 said she was not familiar with the terms and she thought the term “campero” was a proper name so she decided to keep it “just to be safe”. When asked if she would have changed her decision had she known more about the term, she admitted that she did not do enough research and she would have probably offered an equivalent just to clarify the terms for the readers.

Participants N2, N5, and N6 stated they were familiar with the terms because they had either been to Guatemala, their parents make that type of chicken or they simply knew about it through general experience. It is noteworthy that half of the participants adequately used their pragmatic and bicultural knowledge as part of the bilingual and extralinguistic subcompetences. This problem term is not easy to solve without a combination of subcompetences, especially with the instrumental one.

3.6 Knowledge about translation subcompetence: definition

This subcompetence refers to the knowledge of the principles that guide translation as a process and as a profession. Methodology and strategies for the actual translation exercise can be included within the first category and ethical issues and professional etiquette relate to the second category. Nida (1964) divides translation procedures into two types: technical and organizational. Within the technical procedures, the first step to translating involves the analysis of the source and target languages, followed by a thorough study of the source language text before attempting to translate it and finally judging the semantic and syntactic aspects of the source text. The organizational procedures include: a constant re-evaluation of the translation attempts made; a comparison to existing available translations of the same text; and verification of the communicative effectiveness of the text by asking target language readers to evaluate its accuracy and by analyzing their reactions.

Other authors, such as Newmark (1988) describe the translation procedure as operational. He divides it into the following stages: 1) method of approach choice; 2) levels of translation (source language text, referential, cohesive, and reproduction levels); 3) revision. Gambier (2010) relates the concept of translation strategy to the different phases of the translation process

such as, comprehension, organizational, and production strategies which include the revision phase. For this study, the data generated by the pre and post-translation questionnaires will be analyzed on the basis of the translation procedures categories described by the above authors.

3.6.1 Experienced translators group

Participants were asked to describe the procedures they followed when they first received the source text. More specifically, they were asked whether they read the source text in its entirety first. Participants E1, E3, and E4 said they did not read it in its entirety because they are used to dealing with longer documents and in their every day practice, due to time constraints, they cannot take the time to go over the whole document. In addition, participant E4 mentioned that she usually translates the same type of source texts from frequent clients. Since she is familiar with the terminology, she has developed a method of working by segments.

Participants E2, E5, and E6 stated that they did read the whole text only because it was short and two of them were not familiar with this type of text. Participant E2 indicated that she would have highlighted the terminology with which she was not familiar; however because she was conscious of the time, she decided to modify her usual procedure. She also said that she usually does not read the source text in its entirety due to text length and that it depends on how experienced she is with the subject matter.

A general tendency to not read the text in its entirety can be drawn from this analysis. It seems that when the text is short and specialized, participants are inclined to read it because they have the necessary time. In other cases, when the text is long, the tendency is to quickly scan it

so as not to waste any time or translate the text by segments. In the case of a more specialized text, a terminology review would seem to be appropriate.

In terms of the analysis of the source text before translation, all six participants considered the text to be of touristic nature, found in a touristic magazine or brochure in order to generate interest and attract visitors to Toronto. Participants E2 and E4 were more specific as to style and format. They indicated that the text was journalistic style with the intention of advertising the city. Participant E4 mentioned that even though the language was simple, the translator's job would be to adapt it for a special audience and to make it enticing in order to catch the attention of the reader. Participant E5 stated that she was trying to use informal language and to make it as idiomatic as possible. All participants understood the type of text they were about to translate and they kept it in mind for the translation task. They were aware of the challenges of style and target audience.

In terms of the organizational procedures, all six participants said they usually type the translation on a computer instead of handwriting it and then typing a good copy. Participant E5 explained that in her practice, she usually drafts the translation very quickly and then leaves it for a short period of time while she works on other projects. Then she comes back to it, skims it through and prints a copy for editing on hand. Participants E2, E3, E4, and E6 mentioned that they do all the drafting and editing on the computer at all times. Participant E1 said that she usually prints the final copy to make sure she did not miss anything since she finds it better to proofread on paper rather than on the computer.

When asked about procedures they follow when translating, all of the participants mentioned they usually do a first draft consulting mostly online dictionaries and search engines. Participants E3 and E4 said that after they have reviewed their own work, they have it proofread by a colleague or an expert if needed. Participants E1, E2, E5, and E6 proofread their own work and use a spellchecker to make sure there are no typos or basic grammar or spelling mistakes. Participant E1 said that she consults translation forums instead of having her work proofread by a colleague or an expert.

All participants were aware of the importance of effectively using time during the translation task and they all usually have their work proofread either by a colleague or by using technological resources. This shows professionalism on the part of all participants, which is expected from those who have experience in the field.

3.6.2 Novice translators group

Regarding the procedures the participants followed when they first received the source text, all six participants said they read the text in its entirety. Participant N5 mentioned that she learnt that practice at university because an immediate translation can cause losing track of the source text which can result in an incoherent rendition, compared to one where the translator reads the whole text in advance. Participant N2 said that she does so in order to make sure that the translation fits in the correct context and to avoid having to do more editing later. Participant N3 mentioned that she reads the whole text in order to have a better understanding of the source text and its context and to be able to use the appropriate terminology for a specific subject-matter. All six participants usually read the source text in its entirety unless it is a very long and specialized one.

In terms of the analysis of the source text before translation, all six participants coincided in that the source text was intended for tourists in an informative publication. Participants N2, N4, N5, and N6 commented on the register by pointing out that it was a rather informal language usage and that they tried to re-create the style in their translation. Participant N3 said that she thought the tone was rather humorous and that she made a point of transferring that style in her translation but was not sure if she succeeded as both texts had their own version of the same style.

All the participants understood the style of the text and tried to capture it in the translation. They did not have any problems in identifying the tone and specialized terminology of the text, although they did not always succeed in rendering acceptable solutions, as discussed earlier.

With reference to the organizational procedures, participants N1, N3, N4, N5, and N6 said they usually type the translation on a computer and participant N2 said that she prefers to handwrite the translation because she thinks it is easier to spot mistakes that way. Participant N5 mentioned that she used to handwrite translations but she does not do so anymore because she finds it to be time-consuming and inefficient. All participants mentioned that they print a copy of the translation in order to edit it. Participants N1, N2, N5, and N6 said they handwrite comments or changes on the printed copy and then do the editions on the computer before they consider it to be a final copy. It seems that the tendency for this group of participants is to print the translated text in the editing phase. This can be interpreted as a lack of experience using computer resources for translation and proofreading the text directly on the computer.

When asked about procedures they follow when translating, all participants admitted they do not have established processes since they do not have experience in the field but they described what they learnt to do when trained. Participants N1, N2, N3, N4, and N6 stated that after reading the entire source text, they gather all the documentation resources they think they will need for the translation and they start translating immediately. Participants N2, N3, and N6 said they translate sentence by sentence while participant N4 said this method is not efficient. She admitted she still uses it because she has no experience and therefore she cannot compare it with other methods. Participant N1 said she highlights the segments with difficult terminology, then she starts building a terminological database and after that she begins the translation. Participants N1, N2 and N3, mentioned they would have the translation reviewed by a peer or an expert in order to make sure the terminology is accurate. Participants N1 and N3 said they would leave the translation for some time before doing any editing but they also mentioned that this may vary according to specific time limits.

In general terms, it seems that this group of participants conducts some preparation before and after the translation task, including highlighting new vocabulary, building a terminology base, and editing on paper before producing a final copy. This can be linked to the lack of experience in the field, as they are not used to working under pressure to finish a job in a certain amount of time. In some more authentic work situations, urgency can reduce the preparation phase, merging it within the translation task.

3.7 Instrumental subcompetence: definition

PACTE (2008) refers to the instrumental subcompetence as mostly procedural knowledge related to the use of research and terminology tools in documentation. Hernández (2010) argues this subcompetence encompasses several types of knowledge, such as the use of the translator's workstation which may include computer operating systems and word processors. It also includes lexicographical or linguistic resources, such as terminology databases and dictionaries, in order to compensate for the possible lack of subject-specific knowledge on the part of the translator. Kozlova (2006) states that in order to analyse the instrumental subcompetence, it is necessary to consider the mental processes that precede and supplement research skills in translation. She goes on to say that resource management as well as research procedures must be considered when analyzing the instrumental subcompetence. Resource management includes not only a general knowledge of the variety of resources, their contents, and access routes but also a specific knowledge about the technical and scientific terminology needed to translate subject-specific texts. With regard to the research process in terms of problem solving, Kozlova distinguishes the following steps that a translator should take: 1) identify the need for external support after having evaluated internal resources and the source text; 2) define the problem in terms of search criteria; 3) select an appropriate resource and be able to access it; 4) identify the possible terms and evaluate their suitability for the target text; and 5) be able to research supplementary terminology in order to evaluate the possibilities.

3.7.1 Experienced translators group

When asked to reflect on what resources they used for the execution of this translation task, all of the participants said they used bilingual online dictionaries such as Wordreference, Babylon, Webster's, and Oxford. Participant E4 mentioned she did not find the source text

“technical” and therefore she did not use technical resources. She stated that for this task, a bilingual resource was sufficient and she was able to find all the necessary terms. She used the dictionaries mainly to “double check” the terms she knew how to translate. She was able to find other terms considered “slang” by using a web browser such as Google. She mentioned she usually uses a web browser to search for the popularity of a term, according to the number of hits it has on the web. She added that she had brought paper dictionaries but she did not use them.

Participant E5 said she searched for the complete version of the text online as she realized it was an adaptation. She wanted to read further so as to grasp the style and have a better understanding of the source text. Participants E3, E4, E5, and E6 mentioned they used the website Proz which is a peer reviewed forum where translators can ask questions related to grammatical, lexical, cultural, and other issues and they can obtain instant answers or search a question bank with useful peer reviewed references. Participant E4 said she used the forum Proz to search for some options for terms such as “Mink Mile” but she was not able to find answers that corresponded to the context of the source text. Participant E5 said that she finds ProZ to be a very useful resource that she uses frequently and where she finds answers most of the time, especially technical and scientific terminology. Participants E2, and E6 stated that they consulted Wikipedia mainly to search for proper names which they were not sure how to spell. Participants E4 and E5 said that they do not use Wikipedia, they simply search for the term on Google only to verify that the term is being used in media or by the target language speakers. Participants E1 and E6 mentioned they consult monolingual dictionaries such as the Real Academia Española or Merriam Webster’s. Participant E6 stated that when he is unsure of a term found in a bilingual dictionary, he usually refers to the monolingual dictionary to verify accuracy and appropriateness.

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Based on the results of the translation exercise and on the data collected during the interviews, it seems that this group of participants has developed their instrumental subcompetence and has successfully applied it in most cases, as they did not always find a satisfactory solution. They have showed that they used a wide range of resources available not only online but also on hard copy, although the latter was used less frequently. They felt confident using the resources and they knew where to effectively find the information they needed. They optimized their time because they did not have to search for resources; they already knew where to find them and which resources to use. For this specific task, however, given the time limit, some of the participants were not able to conduct an in-depth research for some of the problem terms, such as “Mink Mile” or “pollo campero.”

3.7.2 Novice translators group

In terms of resources consulted to execute this translation task, all of the participants said that they used primarily online bilingual dictionaries such as Wordreference.com, Oxford, Wordmagic, and Dictionary.com. Participant N4 mentioned that she consulted a bilingual paperback edition of Collins dictionary because she is used to working with this resource and she trusts it. She admitted that it may be an old version but for the basic terminology it is a very useful tool. She added that she combines this type of resource with online searches to verify the usage and authenticity of a certain term. Participant N3 said that when she does not recognize a term, she usually consults a monolingual dictionary in order to verify its existence in the target language. Participants N3, N4, and N5 said that they consulted the forum ProZ. Participant N3 explained that she often consults this site in order to check specific terms in context. For this particular text, she used it to see if there were any posted discussions about “the mink mile”. She did not find anything for this particular term but she stated that she finds it very useful to see

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terms in context for specific fields. All of the participants mentioned they did general searches on Google for terms in context, for proper names, and for cultural concepts. Participant N3 said she looked up the name of the beer mentioned in the source text to verify if it had a different name or an official translation in the target language. Although she did not find anything, she thought it was useful to see an image of the beer to rule out any play on words in the source language. Participants N4 and N5 mentioned they consulted Wikipedia. Participant N4 explained that she consulted this site to verify if tourism sites such as “Templo del Gran Jaguar” had an official translation. Participant N5 said that she searched for specific expressions although she was taught in university that Wikipedia is not a site to be trusted since it is not professionally reviewed and anyone can modify its entries.

According to the data that resulted from the interviews, this group of participants has also developed their instrumental subcompetence and has successfully applied it. They mentioned a variety of online resources and one of them also used a paper version of one of the dictionaries. They effectively used their time because they already had experience with the resources they consulted and they did not have to spend time looking for them. Some of the participants consulted the resources to verify that their options for certain translations; they did not trust their own intuition or bilingual subcompetence. This verification phase, however, may have consumed translation and editing time thus producing a less polished target text.

3.8 Strategic subcompetence: definition

This subcompetence is considered the most important one because it involves the procedures related to work organization and performance, problem identification and resolution, and self-evaluation and revision (Gerding, 2012). Neubert (2000) refers to this competence as

“strategic” because it involves all the procedures associated to the conversion of a message from the source language to the target one and the ability to carry out a translation in a quick and efficient manner. PACTE (2003) describes this subcompetence as the combination of all the subcompetences with a key role in the translation process that includes planning a translation project; activating, monitoring, and compensating for deficiencies in other subcompetences; finding translation problems, using translation strategies; and observing and assessing the translation process.

3.8.1 Experienced translators group

When asked to describe what sources of knowledge they used for the execution of the translation task, all six translators did not know what to reply at first. After being offered clarification and asked to reflect on the process and steps they followed and the strategies or “know how” they used, they provided diverse responses.

Participant E5 described the process that she followed when translating and commented on how she did a first basic draft of the translation and then performed an editing review looking to standardize certain terminology, such as the name of a lake that was mentioned several times in the source text. She stated that she spent the last part of her revision process trying to polish the translation to make it sound more attractive for tourists. She argued that this type of translation is not as a legal one where the translator aims to be more exact; in this case her focus was on the use of language so that the text would “sound better”. She admitted that her extralinguistic subcompetence about Guatemalan food and her experience in Spain helped better understand the source text and conduct an efficient translation task.

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Participants E1 and E5 commented on how their extralinguistic skills, namely life and world experiences, are always helpful when translating and are used as strategies in understanding the cultural aspect behind the source text. When asked if they were aware of their subcompetences before being interviewed about them, participant E5 said that she was. Being aware of her use of subcompetences helped her carry out an efficient translation task, focusing on her active editing skills post translation.

Participant E2 said that her studies in translation made her more aware of this stage in the translation task, especially the theoretical courses, although she admitted that work experience was instrumental in gaining more competence in translation. She mentioned that the “culture” factor is essential in translating an idiomatic document. She stressed the fact that she tried to make the text more appealing for a specific audience and she used a more general target language to communicate the main message of the source text. In this case, since the intention of the source text was to convince the audience to visit Toronto, she was very aware of the general tone of the text and she compensated for terms that were not so specific in the target language, for instance “the milk mile”. Even though this is something she learnt in her translation program, she admits that practice was instrumental in applying some of the concepts learnt. When faced with the challenges of the translation task, the participant was able to solve them thanks to her experience and a solid foundation in the theory of translation.

Participant E6 found that trying to keep the same tone or register was challenging, therefore he was careful to avoid translating it literally. He took some liberties and changed the general tone of the text to adapt it to the target audience while keeping the meaning intact. He said that leaving the text for a day, if circumstances apply, helps in editing the text more

efficiently but it was not the case in this exercise. He added that he is aware of the theory learnt in training but he is not relying on it to carry out an efficient translation task. It is mainly his experience that helped in advancing his translation skills.

Participant E3 mentioned that what she learnt in her translation program helped to shape her professional career. However, it was practice and sharing with other translators that improved her translation skills over time. She felt she did not have enough practice during her training as it focused more on theoretical aspects of translation. She admitted that she usually does not reflect on her own process of translation as it comes mechanically but she thinks that training programs could do more in this respect as she values the importance that it bears on an efficient translation task.

Participant E4 agreed that practice helps shape professional skills but added that a professional should always look into improving his/her skills through a combination of practice and professional development courses which include reinforcing theoretical aspects of the translation task. In her opinion, translation is a profession like medicine or law in which professionals need to invest in updating their knowledge and practice.

Overall, participants were not aware of their own processes when translating or which subcompetences they used in the translation exercise or in their practice. They all agreed that theoretical concepts learnt during training helped in providing them with the foundations for developing a career in translation but it was what they learnt through practice that allowed them to be more confident and proficient in the completion of a translation task.

3.8.2 Novice translators group

When asked to describe what sources of knowledge they used for the execution of the translation, all six participants had a vague idea of what the concept of “strategies” was referring to. Participant N5 said she does not really reflect on the process she follows when translating. The process that she follows has been developed with the little practice that she has from volunteer work and training. Although one of her university courses helped with developing a systematic process for translating (reading the whole text, highlighting terms, looking up terminology, and revising), what matters the most, in her opinion, is being able to produce an accurate translation within a reasonable time frame. She prioritizes the quick production of an “acceptable text” without using all of the strategies that she learnt in university.

Participant N1 agreed with this opinion and added that there is a big gap between what is learnt in university and what is done in translation practice. She stated that when she did a onetime translation for an agency, she realized how much more there is between learning basic concepts in class and doing a translation for an exam or assignment and actually working in the field. She realized that she needs to acquire much more practice before she can attempt to work on her own. She felt that she needed to have the support of a colleague to be able to work with more confidence in her skills. She realized that this might be difficult to achieve.

Participants N1, N3, N4, and N6 said that they are not usually aware of their subcompetences. Participant N4 mentioned that she just relies “on her ability and skills”. Even though she admitted that her training helped her gain confidence in her translation skills, she does not reflect on what she does or how she does it. She mentioned that practice is fundamental in improving her translation skills, confidence, and turnaround time.

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Participant N2 said that she could not break down her mental process when translating because it is an ability that she learnt through her training and it happens almost mechanically when she translates; this is something that she has difficulty explaining. During her training she had a project in which she had to outline her translation process. This project helped her become aware of her translation subcompetences and since then it has helped her think of how to improve on her translation process in order to be able to apply all of them in the translation task. On reflecting about this translation exercise and interview, she stated that she has become even more aware of her translation subcompetences and she has realized that they are still active, even though she has not been involved in translation since graduating from her university training.

During the interview, participants were queried about whether they would reflect on their subcompetences and translation process after having discussed it in the interview. Participants N1, N2, N3, and N6 said that they would. Participant N6 stated that when thinking about her subcompetences and the exercise she had just completed and after several months of not translating made her more aware of the skills that need to be developed and improved. She realized that at the time of her training these subcompetences were just “theory” and did not mean anything to her until she was able to put them into practice.

In general, these participants were not conscious of the subcompetences they used for this translation task. The majority related them to the “theory” learnt in training and they admitted that they realized it takes a lot of practice to be able to reflect on one’s own processes in order to improve on them over time. By “theory” it is understood that participants refer to abstract concepts learnt in training that were not applied in practice during instruction. It is assumed that participants often refer to “theory” as decontextualized from practice, concepts that they do not

seem to see as part of their regular translation tasks. An example may be the theoretical framework behind translation competence which is usually taught in training but does not seem to be considered as applied practice.

3.9 Translog results

Participants were asked to complete the translation using the software Translog 2006 which records all keystrokes and actions during the task. This includes completion time and a detailed account of deletions, corrections, time elapsed between keystrokes, and pauses. This data is useful to understand how participants made use of their subcompetences and to make comparisons between and among the groups. For the purposes of data analysis, findings related to the two groups will be divided into the following categories: task duration, text production, text elimination, pauses, and cursor navigation.

The following is a detailed account of all the categories pertaining to each participant in each group. Each participant has been given a number in order to be able to identify them in the discussion chapter.

3.9.1 Experienced translators group

Participant	1	2	3	4	5	6	Average
Task duration (in minutes)	74	73	104	76	47	78	75
Text production (in keystrokes)	2361	2300	2690	3282	2659	3167	2743
Text elimination (in keystrokes)	316	225	214	779	251	632	403
Pauses (in minutes)	20	16	26	12	2	8	14
Cursor navigation (in keystrokes)	797	69	7	1911	16	2	467

3.9.2 Novice translators group

Participant	1	2	3	4	5	6	Average
Task duration (in minutes)	44	77	63	87	59	86	69
Text production (in keystrokes)	2349	2364	2336	2624	2502	2969	2524
Text elimination (in keystrokes)	427	378	401	373	349	781	451
Pauses (in minutes)	6	10	18	10	2	8	9
Cursor navigation (in keystrokes)	317	383	0	0	46	1627	395

3.9.3 Task duration

This category refers to the total time taken by the participants to complete the task. It starts at the opening of the software Translog on the participant's computer station, when the participant is presented with the source text for the first time. In all cases, the participants were ready to start the task as soon as the researcher clicked the application open. The time ended when the participants signaled to the researcher that they had completed the task. On average, the experienced translators took 75 minutes to complete the task, while the novice translators took 69. The fact that experienced participants took longer to complete the task than novices can be interpreted from the point of view of the drafting and revision stages. It seems that professional participants may have devoted more time trying to find the appropriate equivalent for difficult words or they may have spent more time solving translation problems and revising the final version of the translation.

3.9.4 Text production

This category accounts for all the keystrokes used by the participants to create new text. This includes all alphabetical and numerical characters, punctuation marks, symbols, and space bar usage. On average, the experienced translators produced 2743 keystrokes, while the novice

translators produced 2524. This difference can be interpreted as a more effective application of bilingual subcompetence on the part of the experienced participants who seem to have used more strokes to express the ideas in the source text. This can signal effective first language expression and writing skills in the professional participants given their experience in the field.

3.9.5 Text elimination

This refers to backspace and delete keystrokes used to eliminate text. This represents attempts made by the participant to correct a mistyped text or to eliminate text deemed mistaken or inadequate due to a change in mind or the result of revision and/or research. On average, the experienced translators eliminated 403 units of text, while the novice translators eliminated 456.

3.9.6 Pauses

It refers to inactivity between strokes. It can represent time the participant spent thinking, researching or reading the text. On average, the experienced translators paused for 14 minutes, while the novice translators paused for 9.

3.9.7 Cursor navigation

It refers to keystrokes used to navigate the cursor from one position to another. This can include the use of the arrows, page up, page down, home, and end keys. This represents time spent reviewing the text and making changes in different places in the document. On average, the experienced translators navigated the cursor 467 times, while the novice translators navigated it 396.

Chapter 4: Discussion

In order to better understand and discuss the findings outlined in the last chapter, they will be categorized in the context of the research questions that were formulated for this study.

4.1 Question 1: What subcompetences of translation competence do professional translators use when translating?

Before attempting to answer this question, it is worth remarking that since both groups of participants are considered professional translators regardless of their experience, data derived from both groups will be used to answer this question.

Overall, it seems that most of the participants used all of the five subcompetences as it is evident from their translations and interviews. However, it is necessary to clarify that not all of them efficiently used all subcompetences in all instances of the translation task. Some participants used some types of knowledge classified within each subcompetence and some did not use them at all. Each subcompetence and the types of knowledge associated with them will now be accounted for in addressing the above mentioned question.

4.1.1 Bilingual subcompetence

As it is evident from the translations, the majority of the participants showed usage of all these types of knowledge but they did not show consistency across the segments. For instance, within the Spanish into English combination, in segment 1 all eight participants showed evidence of a competent usage of their lexical knowledge as all of them provided acceptable solutions to the problem related to the term “emboban”. However, in segment 2 which related to the problem term “mundana”, two out of eight participants provided an acceptable solution while one provided a semi-acceptable solution. In the English into Spanish combination, in segments 1 and

2, three out of four participants showed evidence of a competent usage of their lexical knowledge.

With regard to the pragmatic knowledge, in both segments of the Spanish into English combination all participants, except one, showed evidence of usage of this type of knowledge. In the English into Spanish combination, also all participants except one demonstrated usage of the knowledge in order to solve the problem related to the terms “Gran Jaguar” and “acres”.

Finally, within the grammatical knowledge category, in the Spanish into English combination six out of eight participants were able to efficiently solve the problem related to the structure “resiste deslumbrando”, thus demonstrating a competent use of this knowledge. In the English into Spanish combination, three out of four participants were able to apply their grammatical knowledge to resolve the challenge posed by the gerund “including”.

4.1.2 Extralinguistic subcompetence

For this subcompetence, there is a wider gap in usage compared to the bilingual one. In the English into Spanish combination, half of the participants showed evidence of an adequate use of this subcompetence as they solved the problem posed by the terms “Mink Mile”, offering target text equivalents that are idiomatic and recreate the meaning of the original term. In the Spanish into English combination, the same pattern can be observed as half of the participants used the subcompetence to solve the problem efficiently and the other half did not. They offered literal solutions that did not capture the essence of the source term because they based their decisions on purely bilingual knowledge. Besides, they did not compensate with the use of other subcompetences such as the instrumental one or they simply were not aware of this

extralinguistic difficulty due to lack of exposure to cultural aspects pertaining to the target text in question.

For this study, it would not be accurate to assume that the participants' experience in the field played a role in facilitating an accurate solution to this problem as only two experienced participants out of four offered acceptable solutions. Although in a larger scale study the experience factor would be influential in problem solving, for this particular study, it is not substantial enough to draw such a conclusion.

4.1.3 Knowledge about translation subcompetence

This subcompetence is related to the procedures that translators follow before and during the translation task. There are certain procedures such as the preliminary reading and analysis of the source text and editing of the target text that vary among translators but cannot necessarily be classified as competent or incompetent. Data is based on whether the participants showed evidence of having some procedures in place and having understood the nature of the source text, considering its challenges and drawing on personal strategies to solve them. All participants showed evidence of following technical and organizational procedures. For the technical procedures, most of the participants read the source text in its entirety to analyze terminology. Some of them simply scanned it but obtained the same results, because they carried out the analysis at the same time as the translation. They also understood the nature of the text and the audience to which it was intended. They showed evidence of editing processes as they re-evaluated their own solutions to certain problems and tried to find other solutions if the one selected was not satisfactory.

4.1.4 Instrumental subcompetence

Both groups showed evidence of the instrumental subcompetence through the use of a variety of resources during the translation task. All participants were aware of the kind of resources available to translators and they used some of them in the completion of this translation exercise. They also showed evidence of the use of this subcompetence when reflecting on the importance of documentation and terminology during the interviews.

It seems that most of the participants tend to always consult online and paper dictionaries and all of them sometimes consult with colleagues or experts. Most of them always consult the internet in general and most of them sometimes participate in translation forums. These results reinforce the participants' awareness of documentation and terminology which was evidenced in the translation task they carried out for this exercise. The only element that could be argued is not the evidence but the quality of research during this exercise. This can be interpreted based on the unacceptable or semi-acceptable solutions they provided for certain lexical challenges, as was analyzed under the bilingual subcompetence.

Another factor to be considered is the timing of the exercise, as the time limit may have conditioned the quality of research. In some cases, some participants provided certain solutions to translation problems that would have resulted differently had they had more time to conduct research and use a wider variety of resources. This can be partly evidenced in the amount of time the participants paused during the translation task, which for experienced translators was on average 14 minutes and for the novice it was 9. It is important to note that pauses not only reflect time participants spent researching but they could also mean time they spent reviewing the document. Comparisons will be drawn under research question number 2.

4.1.5 Strategic subcompetence

At the time of the interview, when participants were asked to reflect on their own processes and use of subcompetences, the majority was unsure of what to respond for this question and most of them expressed their detachment from theory (“what was learnt in training”) and practice. The latter refers to the strategies and processes acquired in the field doing translation work either as self-employed or for translation agencies, employers, and private clients. They discussed mainly their editing and revision process and some strategies they follow to complete a translation within an allotted time limit. When prompted, they mentioned that they refer to the extralinguistic subcompetence to solve issues for which responses cannot be found on any resources.

Overall, participants showed evidence of work organization by describing the processes they follow when translating. They were also able to identify areas that posed challenges either in the completion of this exercise or in their daily practice. In some cases, they were able to compensate for a lacking subcompetence with another one, as is the case of the “mink mile” (lack of bilingual subcompetence compensated by instrumental and extralinguistic subcompetences). In general they were capable of observing the translation process and reflecting on its efficiency.

4.2 Question 2: In what ways do these subcompetences differ in novice and experienced translators?

In order to answer this question, the analysis of the subcompetences of which participants showed evidence will be referred to and the results of both groups will be compared. Data from Translog will be included in this analysis to further illustrate the differences.

4.2.1 Bilingual subcompetence

Both experienced and novice translators showed evidence of using their bilingual subcompetence and the degrees of expertise varied within each of the groups. Since not all the experienced translators translated from one language combination, those segments that were translated by both groups will be compared and parallels will be drawn within those segments only translated by the experienced participants from the other language combination.

In segment 1, which refers to the use of the term “emboban”, both the experienced and the novice participants were able to find an acceptable solution that varied among the participants. Some of the solutions were “amazing”, “captivating”, “spellbinding”, and “fascinating”. All of the participants decided to change the function of the source text term from verb to adjective. This is a logical solution that evidences an efficient usage of the lexical and grammatical knowledge, as part of the bilingual subcompetence. Concurrently, not all of the experienced participants that translated from English into Spanish were successful in rendering the meaning of the term “hotspot” and “shopping bouts”. Three out four offered an acceptable solution and one did not.

In segment 2, however, not all of the participants used their knowledge efficiently in the translation of the term “mundane”. Surprisingly, both experienced participants provided the wrong sense of the term for this specific context and half of the novice participants translated the term correctly. The experienced participants were not able to apply the bilingual subcompetence as they failed to see that the term had two meanings, which caused a transfer error.

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In segment 3, a pragmatic challenge was posed by the term “acre” in the English into Spanish combination. Only one of the four experienced translators was able to use the pragmatic knowledge competently by converting the imperial measure into the metric one. In an equivalent example, only one of the experienced translators was able to offer an acceptable solution while all the novice translators were able to solve the pragmatic challenge by making use of the subcompetence in an efficient way.

In segment 4, which offered a grammatical challenge regarding the translation of the term “including”, three out of four of the experienced translators within the English into Spanish combination provided an acceptable solution to the problem. In a similar example from the Spanish into English combination, one experienced translator and one novice could not solve the problem and as a result, made a transfer error by incorrectly rendering the meaning of the source term.

To sum up, it seems that novice participants showed evidence of adequately using the bilingual subcompetence more often than the experienced participants. Considering the small amount of participants in this study, the general assumption that experienced participants should be able to demonstrate mastery of their subcompetences is not evident in this analysis. A possible interpretation of the difference may be the training quality of the participants regardless of their experience. It seems appropriate to reiterate that out of six professional translators, only half graduated from an accredited translation training program.

4.2.2 Extralinguistic subcompetence

Results for this category are equal; half of the experienced participants and half of the novice participants in each language combination were able to apply their bicultural knowledge in order to solve the problem posed by the terms “mink mile” and “pollo campero”. This deficiency may have been compensated with an adequate use of the instrumental subcompetence due to insufficient time to conduct a deeper research of the terms in question. It can also be interpreted in terms of a lack of encyclopaedic knowledge related to exposure to worldly topics that surpass any experience in the field and any good bilingual knowledge the translator may have. This declarative knowledge can only be acquired, for instance, by reading and/or immersing oneself in matters outside the practice of the profession or formal training. In this case, experience cannot be considered a differentiating factor as both groups demonstrated the same deficiency in their respective language combinations. When queried about their decisions regarding segments related to extralinguistic challenges, participants in both groups were not always aware of the said challenges and did not use other strategies to solve these problems. This may be signaled by a gap in their training with regards to exposure to the cultural nuances of the target language or a lack of natural curiosity in expanding their cultural exposure in the said language. A deeper exposure may have allowed participants to understand the source text or culture at a deeper level and be able to transfer these notional concepts to the target text or culture more accurately.

4.2.2.1 Bilingual and extralinguistic subcompetences summary

Participant	Native speaker	Experience	Studies	Bilingual subcompetence Not acceptable solutions	Extralinguistic subcompetence Not acceptable solutions
E1	Spanish	Freelance	Graduated from Translation Program (3 years)	2 (upper crust, shopping bout)	
E2	Spanish	Management positions	Not in translation	1 (upper crust) 1 omission	1 (Mink Mile)
E3	Spanish	Freelance	Graduated from Translation Program (1 year)	3 (upper crust, shopping bout, incluyendo)	1 (Mink Mile)
E4	Spanish	Freelance Community interpreter	Graduated from Translation Program (3 years)	2 (hotspot, shopping bout)	
E5	English	Management positions	Not in translation	3 (mundane, Great Jaguar, resiste deslumbrando)	1 semi-acceptable (pollo campero)
E6	Spanish	Community interpreter	Not in translation	4 (mundane, plaza, Great Jaguar, resiste deslumbrando)	1 semi-acceptable (pollo campero)

Participant*	Native speaker	Bilingual subcompetence solutions	Extralinguistic subcompetence solutions
N1	English	1 (mundana)	1 (pollo campero)
N2	Spanish	1 (mundana) 1 semi-acceptable	
N3	Spanish	1 omission 1 (mundane, dazzled)	1 (pollo campero)
N4	English		1 (pollo campero)
N5	English	1 (mundana)	
N6	English	1 (mundana)	

*All participants graduated from the one year program Translation Certificate offered by Glendon College.

4.2.3 Knowledge about translation subcompetence

In order to compare both groups, data will be drawn from the pre-translation questionnaire. The following are the results regarding the question: “What procedures do you follow before starting a translation job?”

4.2.3.1 Experienced translators group

	Always	Sometimes	Never
I read the text in its entirety first	0	5	1
I start translating right away	1	4	1
I gather dictionaries, tools, etc.	3	3	0
I make sure I have someone knowledgeable in the subject-matter to consult.	0	5	1

4.2.3.2 Novice translators group

	Always	Sometimes	Never
I read the text in its entirety first	4	2	0
I start translating right away	0	4	2
I gather dictionaries, tools, etc.	4	1	1
I make sure I have someone knowledgeable in the subject-matter to consult.	0	4	2

terms of the organizational procedures they follow prior to the translation, the majority of the experienced participants said they sometimes read the translation in its entirety while the majority of the novice participants said they always read it completely. This difference is to be expected due to the experience factor that gives the professional participants more confidence in the face of a new translation job. This is also a sign of a more effective time management on the part of the experienced participants as they attack the task immediately just after scanning the

document, depending on its length. It is important to underline that while it is not a very large difference, the tendency concurs with the disparity between groups. From a different point of view, the novice participants may have been taught to read the text in its entirety in order to ensure consistency and detect possible translation problems throughout training. This is a very common practice that professional participants may not have been trained to apply as not all of them graduated from an accredited translation training program.

With respect to the understanding and analysis of the source text, both groups demonstrated that they effectively use their technical procedures under this subcompetence as they both accurately described the target audience and considerations of format, register, and style. Both groups also demonstrated that they understood the implications of these factors in the target text and the majority commented on challenges related to these characteristics.

The following are the results from the question: “Describe the revision process you follow when translating.”

4.2.3.3 Experienced translators group

	Always	Sometimes	Never
I use a spelling and grammar checker	5	1	0
I have a reviser with whom I usually work	0	3	3
I revise my own work	6	0	0

4.2.3.4 Novice translators group

	Always	Sometimes	Never
I use a spelling and grammar checker	6	0	0
I have a reviser with whom I usually work	0	4	2
I revise my own work	5	1	0

With respect to the editing of the target text, it seems that both groups have similar tendencies. The majority in each group uses a spelling and grammar checker and revises their own work. Both groups are divided in the question regarding the revision of their work by a third party. The reason why experienced participants do not rely on a reviser on a regular basis or they never do so may be potentially because either the cost is too high or they cannot afford to partly share their income or because they simply do not know any reviser that would be willing to work with them. Most of the experienced participants are self-employed and they live entirely on their income from the translation business. As for the novice participants, they may not be familiar with this procedure or they may not have a network of fellow colleagues who are experienced in the field. Another reason for this can be the lack of training in editing and proofreading.

4.2.4 Instrumental subcompetence

Both groups showed equal evidence of an efficient use of this subcompetence. For the purposes of comparison, data will be drawn from the findings from question number 16: “Describe the documentation process you follow when translating”.

4.2.4.1 Experienced translators group

	Always	Sometimes	Never
I consult online dictionaries	5	1	0
I consult paper dictionaries	0	5	1
I consult people (colleagues, experts, etc.)	0	6	0
I consult the internet in general	2	4	0
I consult specific resources for translators	1	5	0
I participate in translation forums	1	4	1

4.2.4.2 Novice translators group

	Always	Sometimes	Never
I consult online dictionaries	6	0	0
I consult paper dictionaries	1	4	1
I consult people (colleagues, experts, etc.)	0	6	0
I consult the internet in general	4	2	0
I consult specific resources for translators	4	2	0
I participate in translation forums	0	5	1

The only two categories that stand out are the ones related to consulting specific resources for translators and consulting the internet in general. In the case of experienced participants, the majority stated that they sometimes consult specialized resources while the majority of novice participants said they always do. Similarly, when asked if they consult the internet in general the majority of experienced translators said they sometimes do and the majority of novices say they always do. Although, once again, this is not a large difference, it can be explained based on the quality of training that each group had prior to becoming a professional. In the case of experienced translators half of the group graduated from an accredited translator training program and the other half learnt through experience. Since all the

novice participants graduated from an accredited program, it can be assumed that the novices received more instruction in documentation and terminology than the experienced group and are thus more confident in using specialized resources and conducting general research on the internet. Although in the case of the experienced group and in general terms this difference may be accounted for in terms of field experience and mastery of time management, in this particular study it is not evident. One possible interpretation of the difference between the groups can be interpreted as a lack of training in the application of the instrumental subcompetence on the part of the experienced participants.

4.2.5 Strategic subcompetence

When asked to reflect on the sources of knowledge they used for the execution of the translation, or the “know how” they applied in the completion of the task, the majority of the experienced participants said that they started translating immediately after scanning the source text. They described their editing process and added that all research and editing happened almost simultaneously because of the time limit factor. In contrast, the majority of novice participants said they only started translating after the first complete reading and that research and editing did not happen simultaneously, although most of them were aware of the time limit factor. There is an obvious difference in how experienced and novice participants approached the task and it can be referred back to what was discussed earlier in terms of training. It is evident from their first reaction to the task that novice participants were taught to read the document in its entirety and to conduct research immediately after the first reading and editing at the end of the task. Those experienced participants who were formally trained did not, however, use this strategy. This may be interpreted as either a work habit change shaped by practice and

confidence in the task or a lack of training and/or weak application of the strategic subcompetence.

At different stages of the interview, all of the experienced participants mentioned the use of extralinguistic subcompetence to solve certain “cultural” problems they encountered. They also mentioned that they tried to maintain the style of the text in order to create an idiomatic target text appropriate for the target audience. Novice participants did not make any reference to the use of any subcompetence unless prompted. They referred to theory learnt while in training but did not link it to the strategies and processes they follow when translating for the purposes of this exercise.

Most of the experienced participants coincided in that even though they do not often think of the processes they follow when translating, what they learnt in training helped shape their practice, although experience seems to have had a greater influence over their use of subcompetences. Similarly, novice participants said that what they learnt in training was very helpful but they realized that they would need many years of experience to be able to understand and reflect on their processes in order to improve on them.

Participants conducted the translation on the software Translog in order to allow for a comparison of the groups in aspects related to the mechanics and timing of the task. While the differences are not very wide between the groups, they help understand how both groups use their subcompetences during the translation task.

Even if participants were given 90 minutes to complete the task neither group used the time provided. The experienced translators completed the task in 75 minutes on average and the novices in 69. There are several factors to be considered for the early completion of the task such as the text length, the text difficulty, and the availability of resources for documentation and terminology. The texts were approximately 320 words long, which is an average length for texts used in the CTTIC translation certification exam (<http://www.cttic.org/certification.asp>). The linguistic and stylistic challenges were not specialized in nature and the terminology was not technical. The problem terms required a standard amount of documentation and terminology management time. They did not necessarily require consultation with experts or colleagues because the intention behind the text selection was to have participants exercise the use of their translation subcompetences.

In terms of the task duration, experienced participants took 6 minutes longer than the novices. This can be explained by the use of instrumental and strategic subcompetences by each group. Experienced translators may have spent more time in the editing and documentation stages which coincide with the total pausing time difference between groups. Experienced translators paused for 14 minutes while novices paused for 9, which is not a major difference but still illustrates the disparity in the process for each group. This is also linked to the time both groups spent navigating the cursor, which represents time spent reviewing the document while not typing. Once again, experienced participants navigated the cursor 71 times more than novices (experienced 467, novices 396).

Regarding text production, namely the amount of keystrokes produced by each group, experienced participants produced 219 more keystrokes than novices. This difference continues

to be in line with the profile of the two groups, as experienced translators are considered to have applied their bilingual subcompetence more effectively than novices given their practice in the field. Finally, with regard to text elimination, the difference between groups continues to be in agreement with the group behaviour. Novice participants eliminated 53 more units of text than experienced translators (novices 456, experienced 403). This can be interpreted as less confidence on the part of the novices with the translation process in general, from the provision of equivalent units of text in the text edition and proofreading stage.

4.2.6 Summary of subcompetence use among groups

Participants	Bilingual subcompetence	Extralinguistic subcompetence	Knowledge subcompetence	Instrumental subcompetence	Strategic subcompetence
Experienced (Eng-Sp)	Limited pragmatic and lexical knowledge due to time, lack of professionalism, and/or short editing time. Not consistent across segments.	2 managed it well and 2 did not compensate with instrumental subcompetence.	Understood the type of source text. Aware of the challenges of style and target audience. Effectively used time during the task. .	Developed and successfully applied. Wide range of resources available online and on hard copy. In some cases, they did not conduct a thorough research because of time constraints.	Not aware of own subcompetences. Learnt more strategies through practice.
Experienced (Sp.-Eng)	Limited syntax knowledge Good lexical knowledge due to limited training.	Did not completely capture the meaning of the problem term. Did not compensate with instrumental (semi-acceptable solution).			Limited problem identification and solution.
Novice	Limited lexical knowledge compensated through instrumental and pragmatic skills. Good grammatical knowledge due to training. More evident usage than experienced group.	Only half of participants managed it well in combination with instrumental and bilingual subcompetences.	Good organizational skills but longer preparation phase due lack of practice.	Developed and successfully applied it. Variety of online resources and effective use of time. Tend to spend more time checking options than polishing the translation.	Not aware of own subcompetences. Think of "theory" as separated from practice.

4.3 Question 3: How do translators perceive their use of subcompetences during the translation task?

In order to frame this question, items 9 to 13 in the post-translation questionnaire will now be analyzed. These questions deal with sources of knowledge used in the execution of the translation, awareness of own translation subcompetences, the effect of the translation training program and/or practice in the awareness and development of own translation subcompetences, and the impact of this translation exercise and interviews in the perception of the translation process and translation competence.

A common perception among the experienced translators is that they do not often reflect on their translation subcompetences or processes. They mentioned that theoretical concepts learnt through training, or “theory” to cite their own words, become intermingled with practice and they evolve over time into mechanical processes that shape their field experience. They also mentioned that before this translation exercise and interviews they did not think about or question their processes and use of subcompetences. However, talking about them helped being more “analytical” of their own skills and ways of carrying out the translation task. Some of them commented on the lack of practical learning from their training programs. They said that most of the processes and techniques they use in their everyday practice were learnt from experience and they wish they would have given the option of taking specialized courses in which they would have learnt more terminology related topics such as how to use a translation memory, not simply learning “about” it.

Some of them mentioned that the training program was just a “stepping stone” that helped them build the foundations on which to start developing their own techniques. However, they also said in that translation, just like in any other profession, it is imperative to continue to

develop one's own subcompetences as it is a continuous process. Some also mentioned that the extralinguistic subcompetence is learnt through life experience and it is very difficult to "learn" in training. They added that this is a very important subcompetence that is brought to practice as an "add on", a subcompetence that develops with time and world experience.

The novice participants also thought that what they learnt in training has been very useful for helping them shape their practice but they realize that they will need many years of practice before they can reflect on their own subcompetences and be able to develop them.

When asked if talking about their subcompetences during this exercise helped them be more aware of them, they admitted that since they finished their training they had not made the connection between theory and practice. Some of the participants who took similar courses in training mentioned that one assignment helped them reflect on their processes and use of subcompetences. This assignment consisted of a translation and a descriptive report about the steps and strategies used in the translation task. They mentioned that this translation exercise and interview were similar to that assignment and they had not "sat down and thought" about it since finishing their training. They realized that this exercise was also very helpful and that they should probably repeat this reflection more often in order to further develop their techniques and strategies.

Overall, both groups have not shown evidence of perceiving their own subcompetences and reflecting on how they use them during the translation task. However, when prompted, they realized that they did have strategies in place, especially the experienced translators, although it seems that the process is so internalized that they are not aware of them. The general perception

is that theory and practice are detached from one another and that practice helps reinforce and broaden translation subcompetences first introduced in training. The majority of the experienced participants expressed that they wished they would have had more practice while in training in order to develop and/or improve their subcompetences or simply to help them be more aware of them. They would have liked to have had an integrated curriculum and think of the process of translation as a unit of theory and practice. On the other hand, the majority of the novice participants mentioned that they think that practice will surely help improve their subcompetences but none of them made comments regarding a lack of practice in training. It seems that novices are satisfied with the training they received and they hope to supplement it with further experience in the field.

4.4 Potential contributions

This study offers empirical evidence on the use of translation competence by professional translators at different stages in their career. It can also help shed light on the description of the translation process and the role that each subcompetence plays in the completion of the translation task. In addition, this study can be useful and informative to several stakeholders in the translation field, such as the administrators of translation training programs, translators in training and professional translators, and the field of pedagogy of translation.

Firstly, findings from this study can inform administrators of translation training programs about the processes that translators follow when translating. This may help them envision pedagogical methods and resources that can encourage the development of translation subcompetences in translators in training. As stated by many of the participants, they did not have a clear perception of their subcompetences and they attributed it to the insufficient training

or lack of it on this issue. They also perceived theory and practice in the translation training programs as detached from one another, which prevented them from making the necessary connections in order to reflect on translation subcompetences as part of the processes they follow when translating. Another important issue that emerged from this study is the use of the extralinguistic subcompetence by experienced and novice participants alike. As it was previously analyzed, both groups demonstrated an unbalanced use of this subcompetence due to a lack of exposure either during training or experience. Moreover, those participants who identified a translation issue due to a cultural difference were not able to infer meaning out of their own experience or from resorting to the instrumental subcompetence. After being exposed to think aloud protocols during the post translation interviews, many of the participants realized that they had not done a thorough investigation of the culturally relevant terms and they admitted that they would have probably been able to solve the problem by doing that. Given that this subcompetence seems to precede the bilingual one, it may be valuable to explore curriculum development options to instigate natural curiosity and exposure to a variety of subjects during training. This will help build the translator's metacognition and repertoire in terms of the cultural challenges that may appear in the translation task. It may assist them in being more reflective towards their own practice and procedures when translating, which will in turn achieve a better quality target text that caters to the different cultural aspects involved in a language. In the case of the Latin American context, exposure to all related cultural aspects may be overwhelming and difficult to cover in one course but it may be worth exploring.

As Delisle (1980) states, the teaching of translation should include an understanding of the processes by which a message is translated from one language into another. If translators are not aware of their own subcompetences, they would probably not be able to carry out an efficient

translation task using all five subcompetences as they would if they were trained for it from the beginning of their studies. Since the most valuable pedagogical method is showing the process instead of providing an answer, translators in training would benefit enormously from such an approach to teaching translation.

Calvo (2011) states that translation competence has been adopted in curriculum development in the translation field. With this approach to curriculum, some translation training programs focus on outcome learning and process-oriented methodology based on the use of translation subcompetences. However, she argues that the insufficient understanding of curriculum processes and the random application of translation skills could potentially be ineffective for certain programs, such as interpretation. Massey (2005) points out that the training of translators should aim at developing procedural knowledge and, as a result, procedural competence. In addition, for translators in training to be able to experience translation as a process, they could benefit from being exposed to real translation situations detached from the lecture or Socratic methods, by which trainees are not given an opportunity to take initiative in their own learning. Calvo (2011) goes on to say that to better respond to student needs, a more practice-oriented approach is needed in curriculum design for translation training programs. One of the main goals to this approach is the acquisition of competences and skills that generate transferable and meaningful knowledge that accommodates for social needs and authentic translation situations where this knowledge can be applied. Kiraly (2000) advocates for a social constructivist approach to teaching translation and argues that trainees should be empowered to adapt existing tools to be applied to new situations and create new ones to meet future challenges.

Secondly, this study could potentially also help professional translators develop methods of translating that involve an efficient use of all subcompetences and can ensure quality and competitive products. As made evident by experienced participants in this study, it was through practice that they were able to refine their skills and competences. They also expressed that they wished they had had enough practice in real situations during training. Novice translators also said that they would feel more confident after having worked in an authentic situation involving the practice of all subcompetences. Findings from this study could help professional translators be more inquisitive regarding their own subcompetences. They would potentially benefit from a self-assessment of translation processes and use of subcompetences in order to modify, improve or develop them based on theoretical instruction received in training.

Finally, while this study has attempted to answer a number of questions related to the use and perception of translation subcompetences by experienced and novice translators, given its short extent, many questions still remain. One such question which would be interesting to explore is when and how translators acquire translation subcompetences in training and when and how they start applying them in their practice after graduation. Since translation studies started to be offered in the late 1970s and it blossomed in the 1990s due to the start of the electronic media era that generated globalization and intercultural communication (Baker, 2001; Bassnett, 2002), this study could make a valuable contribution to the advancement of research on translation pedagogy, considering it is a fairly recent discipline. In addition, this study may offer an interesting starting point for drawing a comparison between translation training in the English/Spanish and the English/French language combinations, considering that the training in the English/Spanish language combination is also fairly recent, for example, the School of Translation at Glendon College has been offering the Certificate in Spanish/English Translation

since 1997 (M. Guzmán, personal communication, April 23, 2013). Moreover, the findings in this study may offer new or comparable data that could serve as additional evidence for the advancement of translation competence theories and competence-based curriculum design for translator training in Canada and in other countries where translation studies have been taught for a similar or longer number of years, such as Spain.

Appendix I

Introductory letter

My name is Mara Reich and I am currently a PhD student at the Faculty of Education, York University. I am a certified Translator (English-Spanish) as well as an Ontario Certified Teacher. I have experience both as an in-house and free-lance translator as well as a high school teacher and university instructor teaching Spanish and Translation. I am conducting research into the acquisition and development of translation competence and I am looking for your participation in this study. The information that I collect will be used to write my doctoral dissertation, towards the completion of my degree.

In this study, I intend to investigate the subcompetences professional translators use when translating and the differences between novice and experienced translators. I would also like to explore how translator training programs prepare translators to make an effective use of their subcompetences.

If you are interested in participating, you will be asked to fill out an informed consent form, two questionnaires and do a short translation using the software *Translog* which records a visual analysis of the process of translation such as deletions, corrections, and text organization. It should take about two hours to complete this part of the research project. At a later date, you will be asked to participate in an interview which will be recorded. The interview should take about one hour to complete.

I will analyze the information I collect and draw some conclusions regarding the use of subcompetences during the translation process as well as the development of translation competence after formal training.

Confidentiality

I will be the only person with access to your interview (audio recording and transcript in electronic format). This information will be stored on my personal computer, password-protected. I will be the only person with access to my computer. When I report the findings of the interviews or translation samples, I will eliminate identifying information so that you will remain anonymous. I will forward you a copy of my final paper if you are interested in reading it.

Potential Risks of the Study

I don't foresee any risks to the participants of this study, as the final report will focus on the participants' combined experience and participation will be kept confidential. If I decide to include your individual comments or ideas, identifying information will be removed and a pseudonym will be created for you.

Should you have any questions or concerns about the research process, please feel free to contact me to discuss it and you can withdraw from this study at any time. If you decide to withdraw, any information that you have shared with me will be immediately destroyed.

Benefits

Each participant in the study will be given \$50 compensation for their time. I hope that this study will be useful to you individually and to the field of translation pedagogy and translation in general. As a professional translator, this study might be used to help you be more aware of your translation subcompetences and identify ways of improving them. It might also help translation instructors in curriculum and course design.

If you are interested in participating in this study, please contact me at mara@kinoto.com.

Thank you in advance for your help with this research.

Mara Reich, PhD candidate, York University

Should you wish to contact the university for further information or clarification, my supervisor is Dr. Razika Sanaoui, rsanaoui@edu.yorku.ca, 416-736-2100 x 30140

You can also contact Ms. Alison Collins-Mrakas, Senior Manager of Research Ethics at the Office of Research Ethics, 74 York Blvd., York University, (416) 736-5914.

Appendix II

Informed Consent Form

Date: _____

Title of the research study: The development and use of translation competence by novice and experienced professional translators: implications for translation pedagogy.

Researcher: Mara Reich, PhD Candidate, Faculty of Education, York University

Purpose of the research: To investigate what subcompetences professional translators use when translating and in what ways these subcompetences differ between novice and experienced translators and to explore translators' perceptions/opinions of how training programs prepare them to make an effective use of their subcompetences.

What you will be asked to do in the research: Complete two questionnaires, do a short translation, and participate in an individual interview.

Risks and discomforts: I do not foresee any risks or discomfort from your participation in the research.

Benefits of the research and benefits to you: As a professional translator, this study might help you be more aware of your own translation process and of the way you make use of your translation subcompetences. It might also be useful to identify ways of improving them. For the field of translation it might help instructors with curriculum and course design.

Voluntary participation: Your participation in the study is completely voluntary and you may choose to stop participating at any time. Your decision not to volunteer will not influence your relationship with me or York University neither now, nor in the future. You will receive \$50 as an inducement for your participation.

Withdrawal from the study: You can stop participating in the study at any time, for any reason you may deem valid. If you decide to stop participating, you will still be eligible to receive the promised pay for agreeing to be in the project. Your decision to stop participating, or to refuse to answer particular questions will not affect your relationship with the researcher, York University, or any other group associated with this project. In the event you withdraw from the study, all associated data collected will be immediately destroyed.

Confidentiality: All information you supply during the research will be held in confidence and unless you specifically indicate your consent, your name will not appear in any report or publication of the research. Data will be audio-recorded using a digital device. Your data will be safely stored in a password-protected computer and only my thesis supervisor and I will have access to this information. This information will be destroyed after a period of five years following the conclusion of the study. Confidentiality will be provided to the fullest extent possible by law.

Questions about the research? If you have questions about the research in general or about your role in the study, please feel free to contact me at the Graduate Program in Education, York University, 282 Winters College, by phone at 416-736-5018 or by e-mail at mara@kinoto.com. You can also contact my thesis supervisor, Razika Sanaoui by phone at 416-736-2100 x 30140 or by e-mail at rsanaoui@edu.yorku.ca. This research has been reviewed and approved by the Human Participants Review Sub-Committee, York University's Ethics Review Board and conforms to the standards of the Canadian Tri-Council Research Ethics guidelines. If you have any questions about this process, or about your rights as a participant in the study, please contact Ms. Alison Collins-Mrakas, Senior Manager & Policy Advisor, Office of Research Ethics at York University, 5th Floor, York Research Tower, by phone at 416-736-5914 or by e-mail at acollins@yorku.ca.

Legal Rights and Signatures:

I _____, consent to participate in the study conducted by Mara Reich. I have understood the nature of this project and wish to participate. I am not waiving any of my legal rights by signing this form. My signature below indicates my consent.

Participant

Date

Investigator

Date

Appendix III

Pre-translation questionnaire

1. Describe your experience learning languages prior to enrolling in a translation training program/working in translation.
2. What was your language proficiency level prior to enrolment in a translation training program/working in translation?
3. Do you have a translation degree?
If yes, please state the program and university you graduated from.
4. (If you answered "NO" to the previous question, please ignore questions 4, 5, 6, 7)
Why did you enroll in a translation training program?
5. What translation courses did you take?
6. What was the format of the "translation class"? (the class in which translation practice was the main purpose).
7. What type of texts did you translate?
8. In your opinion, how did you learn "how to translate"?
9. Describe your professional experience after graduating from a translation program (if you don't have a translation degree, please describe your professional experience in general)
10. If you have professional experience, what types of clients do you work for?
11. If you have professional experience, what procedures do you follow before accepting/being assigned a translation job?
12. What types of texts do you feel most comfortable with?
13. If you have professional experience, do you accept any type of translation text regardless of experience/knowledge?

Please explain why.

14. What procedures do you follow before starting a translation job?

	Always	Sometimes	Never	N/A
I read the text in its entirety first	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I start translating right away	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I gather dictionaries, tools, etc.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I make sure I have someone knowledgeable in the subject-matter to consult.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

15. Describe the translation process you follow (procedures, routines, etc.).

16. Describe the documentation process you follow when translating.

	Always	Sometimes	Never	N/A
I consult online dictionaries	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I consult paper dictionaries	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I consult people (colleagues, experts, etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I consult the internet in general	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I consult specific resources for translators	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I participate in translation forums	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Other (please specify below)

17. Describe the revision process you follow when translating.

	Always	Sometimes	Never	N/A
I use a spelling and grammar checker	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I have a reviser with whom I usually work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I revise my own work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Other (please specify below)

Appendix IV

Text for translation (English into Spanish)

Toronto, Canada: So Much to Experience

From cosmopolitan chic to country charm, Toronto's neighbourhoods offer an eclectic mix of architecture, food and shopping. This vast cultural diversity creates a worldly experience for visitors.

Bloor/Yorkville

This Toronto hotspot is strictly upper crust. One of Toronto's most elegant shopping and dining areas, Bloor-Yorkville's designer boutiques, antique shops and galleries are absolutely first class. The area features many small courtyards and alleyways, and a contemporary park located in the very heart of the neighbourhood. The park features a giant granite boulder, which brings the raw beauty of cottage country right into Toronto's urban centre. It's a great place to rest between shopping bouts. Hailed as the "Mink Mile," Bloor-Yorkville is home to high-end designers like Tiffany and Chanel. But here you can also freshen up your wardrobe with unique fashions from the hottest Canadian designers, including Jeremy Lang and Hoax Couture. It's the gleam of high-priced art, haute couture and fine dining that draws stars, fans and paparazzi here during the Toronto International Film Festival. No visit to Toronto is complete without a thorough exploration of this chic neighbourhood.

Distillery District

The Gooderham & Worts Distillery was founded in 1832 by James Worts and his brother-in-law, William Gooderham. Their distillery flourished and by 1871 produced almost half of Ontario's total spirit production, exporting whisky and spirits to many Canadian markets and even to New York. This 13-acre historic enclave on Toronto's shoreline, complete with 45 19th-century buildings, has undergone careful restoration. As a result, it is now recognized as North America's best-preserved collection of Victorian industrial architecture. Its new name – the Historic Distillery District – embraces the area's rich past and architectural legacy. The Distillery has been developed as a centre for arts, culture and entertainment. The picturesque, pedestrian-only area is filled with over a hundred tenants, including galleries, museums, rehearsal halls, boutiques, retail shops, artist studios, restaurants, bistros and cafés. The Distillery bustles with activity day and night. You can catch live music, outdoor exhibitions, fairs and special events year-round.

337 words

*Adapted from: *Tourism Toronto*. (2010). Retrieved June 7, 2010, from
<<http://www.seetorontonow.com/Visitor/Explore/City-Neighbourhoods.aspx>>

Appendix V

Text for translation (Spanish into English)

Guatemala: un, dos, tres

Ciudades coloniales, mercados que emboban, un santo deshonesto o el templo del Gran Jaguar. Y regado todo con mucho ron.

Para integrarse de manera presurosa y mundana en la cultura guatemalteca, tres son las premisas imprescindibles. Respondamos sin que tiemble la voz. Uno: tomarse una cerveza Gallo. Dos: probar los muslos crujientes de pollo campero. Tres: beberse, y repetir, una copa de ron Zacapa. Una vez cumplido el trámite, ya se puede decir que usted es medio guatemalteco. A ese sentimiento contribuye la euforia que aporta el ron, cuantos más se tome, más guatemalteco se sentirá. Pero vayamos por partes. También son tres sus especialidades. Uno: Antigua. Dos: el Lago de Atitlán. Tres: el parque de Tikal.

Antigua

Nada más llegar, Antigua se declara, sin presunciones, como una ciudad colonial para recorrer a pie. Cuida tanto su esencia que los adoquines complican el paseo: conviene olvidar las chancas y recorrerla con buen calzado. Incluida desde 1979 en la lista del patrimonio mundial de la Unesco, se conserva como una ciudad intocable. Transmite buenas sensaciones en sus plazas, hoteles que parecen museos, iglesias que asoman como reliquias y edificios coloniales, bares de fachada en desuso como el Café Flor, comercios y farmacias de otro tiempo que aportan un punto de experiencia plástica a las fotos.

Lago de Atitlán

El lago de Atitlán es un accidente geográfico único. Un profundo lago hirviente rodeado de volcanes (Atitlán, Tolimán y San Pedro) y de pueblos. Es el más profundo en América Central.

Tikal

Testigo de un turismo descomunal y de un mercantilismo ausente en el resto del país, Tikal resiste deslumbrando. Esta fascinante ciudad maya merece la pena y todo lo demás. El templo del Gran Jaguar y el de las Máscaras se miran de frente mientras el turismo asiste embobado a tanta precisión arquitectónica.

305 words

*Adapted from: Lahoz U. (2011, June 18). Guatemala: un, dos, tres. El País. Retrieved from <http://elviajero.elpais.com/articulo/viajes/Guatemala/elpviavia/20110618elpviavje_7/Tes

Appendix VI

Post-translation questionnaire

1. Describe what you did when you first received the translation.
2. Did you read the text in its entirety when you first received it? Why or why not?
3. Did you use any resources for documentation? Describe the resources and state what purpose they served.
4. Where did you do the first draft of the translation? (computer, piece of paper, etc.)
5. Comment on target audience, considerations of format, register, and style.
6. What were the challenges you faced while translating? (comment on lexical, grammatical, transfer, cultural difficulties, etc.)
7. Describe and comment on specific term/phrase problems and how you solved them.
8. What sources of knowledge have you used for the execution of this translation? To help you, think of the process and steps you followed and the “know how” you applied in the completion of this translation task.
9. Before this study, were you aware of your own translation subcompetences?
10. Did your translation training program help you be aware of and develop your own translation subcompetences?
11. Did professional practice help you improve your translation subcompetences? If yes, how? If not, why?
12. Has this translation exercise and questionnaire helped you change anything about your perception of the translation process and translation competence?

Appendix VII

Error evaluation categories

Major translation error (-2 to -.5)

M	sense or meaning departure from ST
CH	lexical choice (terminology)
G	grammatical error (sentence structure or grammatical agreement)
Sp	spelling error
U	usage
R	register

Minor translation error (-.5)

Syn	syntactic organization
Ch	lexical choice (microstructural level)
P	punctuation
Sty	stylistic choice

Major or minor (depending on the context) (-1 to -.5)

O	omission
OVT	over-translation
LT	literal translation
FT	free translation

*Adapted from: *Association of American Translators*. (nd). Retrieved August 27, 2010, from http://www.atanet.org/certification/aboutexams_presentation.php

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